THE BULLETIN

of the

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION

of

NURSE ANESTHETISTS

AUGUST 1941





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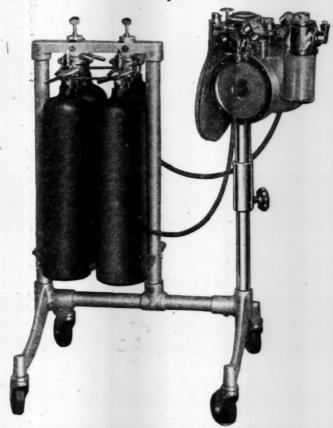
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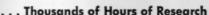
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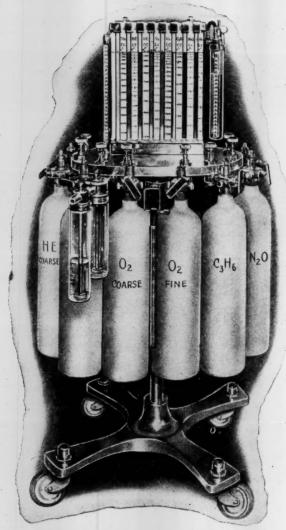
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BULLETIN OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF NURSE ANESTHETISTS

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The Bulletin of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists

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THE EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF NURSE ANESTHETISTS

AGATHA C. HODGINS

"When man begins to weave, the gods provide the thread."

(Greek proverb)

This paper, like Caesar's Gaul, is divided into three parts—its only link to fame. Briefly these are: First, Contributions of the Past; Second, Responsibilities of the Present; Third, The Challenge of the Future.

Before discussion of these divisions let us consider what is implied, when we write or utter, as we so often glibly do, the word "objective"-a word that never in its history has been put to such wide and varied usage-good and bad, in import. We all associate, and rightly, the word in relation to some antecedent thought concept, which matures into a definite plan or project. Such a plan to be significant and effective must have engrafted on it definite objectives, constructive in form and capable of release as incentives to useful activities. The plan may be a noble plan, an excellent plan, a useful plan, or fortunately a plan which combines elements of all these qualities. It may be a large plan, involving many persons, important in its influence and with far-reaching objectives; or it may be a simple plan, concerned with attainment of a single objective. It may be an unworthy plan-with definitely harmful objectives-but we are not concerned with such.

While the plan concept is basically subjective—a creation of mind—it must, as stated, to be effective have attached to it certain concrete objectives to be striven for and accomplished. Creation of a plan without objectives would be purposeless; objectives without a plan, futile. The type of organization formed to imple-

Read at the third annual meeting of the Southeastern Assembly of Nurse Anesthetists, held in New Orleans, April 17-18, 1941.

ment the purposes of the plan, and designed to secure its objectives, depends largely on the exercise of creative thought—subjective; and on the successful execution of practical activities—objective.

Ultimate realization of objectives is never completely fulfilled, else the urge for creation of still better forms of expression, more excellent service and finer objectives would not exist; and exist it does and must, if continued progress is to be made. Organizations, like persons, cannot stand still-it is either a forward or a backward process, either loss or gain. Because this is so, the successful person, or the progressive organization, subscribes to a way of life which embraces the resolution of pressing forward from the goal set, to one still higher-from service given to service still better. Thus through determined effort the fruits of labor gained are passed on in continuity from one generation to another. This then is the task-this the burden that must be assumed by the membership of an organization, devoted to making secure in perpetuity the work they represent and serve.

On this brief general premise, we postulate that the Association to which we belong rightly claims, by reason of the essential importance of the work it serves, objectives it is committed to accomplish; responsibility assumed for creating a still wider field of usefulness—its part in the task of perpetuating, in organization—

al form, the vital work of anesthesi-

In evaluating gifts from the past, it is difficult to determine when and where the thought concept which prompted the creation of this plan of service originated; still more difficult to estimate justly the value of contributions made toward establishing the value and usefulness of the plan conceived; and equally hard to rate the efforts which went into materializing this nebulous plan into a force which later resulted in the organzation of our present Association.

Consideration of these points leads us into the first division of the subject proper of this paper-the origin of nurse anesthetist service, and its function prior to organization. In discussing this I shall have to apologize in advance for the necessity of quoting myself, not because I would not rather have better, but because other written references extant to the period are not available. No attempt will be made to go deeply into this early history—that is a subject deserving of careful and special handling; and any references cited will be those that have to do with significant phases in the origin of nurse anesthetist service, and early attempts to give it objectivity as an entity in hospital service.

While we would all like to know with certainty the name of the first nurse anesthetist, so that we might give to her prior honor, we reluctantly admit there still remains a veil of mystery over this lady. However, it is an established fact that Alice MacGaw was the first nurse anesthetist to appear in authentic history, and Doctor Mayo the first surgeon to appoint a nurse anesthetist on his staff. Miss MacGaw was also the first nurse anesthetist to compile and have published an article reviewing her series of ether anesthesias—drop

ether method, for which the Mayo Clinic was at that time justly famous.

It was also a nurse anesthetist who was selected by another famous surgeon (Doctor Crile) and who, as far as I know or can learn (I write cautiously-looking to the East and West and the Islands of the Sea) was the first nurse anesthetist to develop a technique of gas-oxygen anesthesia for general surgical work, inclusive of the use of carbon dioxide-oxygen therapy. It was also the hospital of which Doctor Crile was then surgeonin-chief, the Lakeside (now University Hospitals of Cleveland) that founded, (and here I am on firmer historical ground), the first school of anesthesia with this same nurse anesthetist in chage. This school, by reason of its organizational form; teaching faculty; adequate educational requirements for entrance; defined course of instruction, and awarding of a certificate upon satisfactory completion of the prescribed course, is set apart as a school of anesthesia, and differentiated from other and possibly earlier centers of instruction -none of which, so far as I can learn, were designated as, or fulfilled the distinct function of such a school per se.

This school, first known as the Lakeside Hospital School of Anesthesia, has from its inception held a high place as an organized center for teaching anesthesiology, contributing much to the education of nurse anesthetists, and furthering, through the work of its graduates, the progress and efficiency of anesthesia service throughout this country. From this first school of anesthesia have sprung other schools, doing equally excellent work, and contributing in corresponding degree to this form of hospital service. One of these-shall we say related schools-has in recent years

made notable contributions in teaching material, of which we are all proud.

The measure of success attending the development of nurse anesthetist service, at this time and in this place, was largely due to the help, encouragement and sound education given by Doctor Crile to the nurse anesthetist into whose hands he had entrusted this work. Another equally needed and important gift to the success of the school was the support extended and the interest taken in this pioneer effort by the Trustees and Superintendent of the hospital in which it originated. In the final nurse anesthetists analysis, never had, in their early history, and continuing on to the present day, more staunch supporters or better friends-certainly none more deserving of the gratitude and appreciation of our group. I hope this contribution will be remembered and treasured, in the history of our Association.

The above circumstances, related because of their vital place in the history of our work, are synonymous with many more like situations. In point of fact, one of the outstanding features of this early period was the acknowledgment and belief (by those appointing them) of the ability of nurse anesthetists to carry on a work of such great importance; and the measuring up to this belief and trust by those so chosen. The tradition of loyalty and service thus established should, and we believe is and will always be the heart of our organization—a motivating force in its activities.

In 1909 or thereabouts, Florence Henderson, Miss MacGaw's successor, was invited to give at a biennial convention of the American Nurses' Association a paper on *ether* versus gas anesthesia, and I, as an exponent of

gas-oxygen, was invited to discuss her paper. I regretfully record that while Miss Henderson and myself both regarded our papers, to put it modestly, well above the average, we were evidently quite alone in this opinion, and the appearance of two supposedly famous pioneers caused not a ripple on the surface of that convention, doubtless due to the fact, that in accomplishing pioneers, the American Nurses' Association is ne plus ultra and so although we thought we were good, we were apparently not good enough.

In 1914 a war service unit was formed from Lakeside Hospital for work in France. The unit, financed by Mr. Samuel Mather and Mr. H. M. Hanna of Cleveland, and in charge of Doctor Crile, left in December, 1914, for service in the American Ambulance Hospital, Neuilley, Paris, France. Attached to this unit were three anesthetists—the writer and two members of her staff. The assignment of this anesthesia unit was to introduce gas-oxygen in war surgery, from that base hospital. The fortunate result was that of being able to successfully accomplish this assignment both on this special unit, and later, on the French surgical division of the American Ambulance Hospital. Thus, nurse anesthetists were certainly among the first, if not the first, from this country in service during the war of 1914. Later, when America entered the war, this service was greatly multiplied and nurse anesthetists from all over the country were sent to France to serve in base hospitals as anesthetists-and a very excellent record they made.

Somewhere between 1912 and 1920, possibly slightly before this date, but more or less coincidental with the increasing popularity of nurse anesthetist service, agitation against this

form of service was started and maintained with sporadic energy, by a group of medical and dental anesthetists. This topic is here introduced, not with any idea of enlarging upon or entering into critical discussion of this campaign, but to state two plain facts which have had a bearing on making more secure the legal status of nurse anesthetists. Briefly related, these two facts are, first: the passing in 1918 of Section 1286-2 by the Ohio legislature. This bill was framed to give a degree of legal security to the qualified nurse anesthetist administering anesthetic drugs under the direction and in the presence of a licensed physician. In spite of constant efforts on the part of opponents to nurse anesthetist service to annul it, the bill has continued in force to this day. The second fact was the winning of a favorable verdict in the suit brought against Saint Vincent Hospital, Los Angeles, California, and Miss Dagmar Nelson, nurse anesthetist, by a representative of a group of medical anesthetists. This suit, taken by the plaintiff after defeat in the lower court, to the Superior Court of California, was decided in favor of the defendant, and Miss Nelson is still pursuing her work as an anesthetist. In both these cases the surgeons, particularly Doctor Crile and Doctor Lower of Ohio; Doctor Hunt of California; other hospitals in both these states and throughout the countrymost specifically the University Hospitals of Cleveland and the Saint Vincent Hospital in California-assumed the responsibility for defending the right of the qualified nurse anesthetist, under existing legal provision, to administer anesthetics.

Again was demonstrated in most practical fashion, the belief (by those most concerned) in the right of the qualified nurse anesthetist to pursue

her profession and have legal security against interference with that right. Certainly if the services of nurse anesthetists had not been desired and satisfactory, no such support would have been extended. The process of clarifying this situation to a still greater degree, thereby making the professional status of the qualified nurse anesthetist more clearly defined and secure, is a duty which in large measure now belongs within the present function of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists, as an important objective to be steadily worked for.

Somewhere between 1916 and 1919 a request was made to Doctor Crile for the preparation of a "Section on Gas-Oxygen" for publication in the "Oxford Surgery"; this in turn was assigned by Doctor Crile to this writer, and with the collaboration of Doctor Crile's editor, Miss Rowland, and the artist on his staff, the late Mr. Brownlow, the article was prepared and accepted. While this article came under the critical flail of the then leading antagonist to nurse anesthetist service, favorable comment was passed upon it by the "London Lancet," so it evidently possessed a degree of merit and value. Contributions were also made, as requested, to the work then so notably accomplished by Doctor Crile in the development of his epoch-making Anoci-Association theory, as applied to the science of surgery.

It must be remembered that at this time there did not exist for study and teaching use the wealth of excellent material now available on the subject of anesthesiology. Because of comparative meagerness of teaching material, it was necessary to compile, for the use of my students, a complete set of teaching notes, incorporating into such the current contributions to anesthesiology, thus cov-

ering in more explicit and comprehensive manner the study material necessary in making the teaching of this subject clearer to the student. This single early record of endeavor to forge a way of education for nurses interested in taking up this important service, could be multiplied all over the country in schools of anesthesia, under the supervision of nurse anesthetist instructors. We are here making no comparison on systems of teaching but stating simple facts of experience.

Also this topic is here introduced only to emphasize the fact that nurse anesthetist educators have always held, as a primary responsibility and as an important objective, the education of student anesthetists—also to refute in some small measure the propaganda—then existing and still used—that the nurse anesthetist was and is, so to speak, a rule of thumb technician.

In 1921, bringing another wave of agitation against nurse anesthetists, it seemed wise that when opportunity was afforded to present to interested groups the case for nurse anesthetists, such should be embraced. With this in mind the writer accepted an invitation to give a paper on the topic of "Nurse Anesthetist Service" before the Cleveland division of The League of Nursing Education. In this paper I outlined the arguments advanced by the medical anesthetists against nurse anesthetist service, offering in rebuttal the reasons why this service was valuable and should be supported. While I thought I was a pretty fair advocate, and presented a good case, I was apparently not yet enough for the good American Nurses' Association. The only result of this-if result it can be called -was a much later invitation from a group of nurse anesthetists, evidently influenced by a group within the

American Nurses' Association, to organize as a section in that association "Office Nurses and Nurse Anesthetists." Knowledge of the possibility of this unfortunate development led to my paper on "The Nurse Anesthetist," read before the biennial convention of the American Nurses' Association in 1930. This paper did, sincerely believe, help to make nurse anesthetists there present realize the importance of nurse anesthetist service as a separate division of hospital service-not a section of nursing or related in any sense (except that office nurses sometimes are called upon to administer anesthetics) to this division of nursing. Be that as it may, the resolution, evidently prepared to accomplish this sectional grouping, was not put to motion and the section was not formed. There is here no intention of judging in the least degree the decision made by the American Nurses' Association in regard to the place accorded our smaller specialized group. Nurse anesthetists have always been and always will be keenly appreciative of the place and value of the magnificent organization to which they owe their basic training.

In my paper I emphasized the importance of the administration of anesthetics as a separate service; also logically presented and answered in rebuttal current propaganda against this form of service and definitely outlined responsibilities of the nurse anesthetist group relative to instituting protective measures. I stated that-"improvement of the present anesthetists themselves. If the work situation is in the hands of the nurse is to be properly safeguarded and hoped-for progress attained, it is necessary that remedies be applied to certain detrimental conditions now acknowledgedly existing. It would seem that the first step should be the awakening of deeper interest and the

development of constructive leader-Following in logical order would be: self-organization, emphasis to be placed on the establishment of educational standards; postgraduate schools of anesthesia, tablished or to be established, required to conform to an accepted criterion of education; state registration, putting the right of the nurse anesthetist to practice her vocation beyond criticism; constant effort toward improving the quality of the work by means of study and research, thus affording still greater protection to the patient; dissemination of information gained through proper channels."

With the quoting of this pronouncement we reach the end of the first part of this theme. The purpose of inserting this quotation is to make clear to those unfamiliar, that before formal organization of the nurse anesthetist group took place, there existed in the minds of those of us deeply interested in furthering the service, a definite plan for its promotion, improvement, and perpetuation, on the only basis a work of such vital importance should be established, namely by the formation of an association concerned in and solely devoted to, its advancement.

We now enter into the second, better known, and more pertinent division of our theme; the accompli fait of changing the nurse anesthetist group into an organized association pledged to promote, sustain, and improve the objects of the service—a burden which had to this time been carried by surgeons, hospitals and interested individual anesthetists and smaller groups of anesthetists devoted to this work.

On June 17th, 1931, synchronizing the event with the formal opening of a group of buildings which were from that date on to be known as "The

University Hospitals of Cleveland," a meeting, called by this writer, was held in the class room of the anesthesia department of the new Lakeside division of this greater group, which resulted in the organization of what was then designated as "The National Association of Nurse Anesthetists"now the "American Association of Nurse Anesthetists." At this meeting were adopted, as the purpose for, and object of, this new association, educational objectives which place it in the category and give it status as an educational association attached, as a separate unit of specialized service, in the wider field of organized hospital service.

It is an aphorism to state, that in discussing the objectives of an association devoted to promoting a work requiring changing presentation of material, to meet its progress; that all its objectives are broadly educational in character, and might therefore come within the scope of this discussion. Assuredly this paper has not such ambitious aims, but is concerned solely with a pertinent review of such educational objectives as are delegated to the Committee on Education, in the By-laws, and impinging activities, which by reason of their relationship to the topic in hand cannot be separated from it-if the matter as a whole is to be intelligently presented.

While the six "objects" given in the constitution, or, articles of incorporation, could, as stated, be broadly considered educational, there are three which are specifically in this classification. For the sake of clarity I quote these three verbatim—"1. To advance the Science and Art of Anesthesiology." The second objective definitely within the scope of this discussion reads, "2. To develop educational standards and technique in the administration of anesthetics;"

and the last object, "3. To promulgate an educational program with the object of disseminating through proper channels the importance of the proper administration of anesthetics." To complete the picture we supplement these given "objects" of organization with Section 15, Article XV of the By-laws, wherein the function and scope of the Educational Committee is defined, "This committee shall assist in the development of educational standards in accordance with plans approved by the Board of Trustees, and such other educational projects as may be authorized by the Board of Trustees." We have now arranged the ground for consideration of what is involved when we discuss, within the above scope, ways and means to accomplish the educational objectives attached to the three given objects and implied in the function of this committee.

Successful carrying through of a project of this magnitude obviously cannot be accomplished by one or even more committees, no matter how efficient and hard working, but requires the efforts of other groups. To make simpler the question of "who is responsible for what?" we will divide those involved into four groups: First, those qualified for the practice of anesthesia and actively engaged in it-namely, the member-Second, indicated committees ship. appointed by and responsible to the Board of Trustees, for creation, presentation and direction of sanctioned plans to accomplish the "objects" of the organization, and fulfill as indicated the function of the committee. Third, the Board of Trustees, responsible to the membership for such conduct of the affairs of the organization as will insure in continuity, the accomplishment of plans sanctioned by the Board, and released for action to the indicated committee.

Fourth, the student group—a group as yet not qualified for membership and therefore, in an organic sense, outside the association, with no responsibilities towards it—but for whom, because of their potential future value to the organization, the association assumes as an educational objective, plans to bring the education given students in schools of anesthesia up to such a minimum standard as will assure adequate education to all.

Apportioning definite parts of this educational program is comparatively easy; securing cooperation and inculcating responsibility for the accomplishment through groups, legitimately the agents for implementing it, is quite another and more difficult problem—the solution of which can only be achieved by stimulated thinking, coordinated planning and concerted action. With this in mind, we shall endeavor to connect the particular "object" of organization with the group responsible for implementing it into action.

It can be asserted without argument, that "object one" contains an objective common to all plans, and constantly effected, for better or worse, by the work of all members. To particularize this general statement is not pertinent to this paper. Everything we do is with the view of advancing the work of anesthesiology.

The second object, viz: "development of educational standards and techniques in the administration of anesthetics" belongs to and can only be implemented through the membership. Fulfillment of this obligation—a continuing process, is therefore, broadly stated, within the function of every clinic in charge of a nurse anesthetist, or having nurse anesthetists on the staff. The association, through indicated channels, being the

directive agency of, and clearing house for, knowledge gained and techniques of administration of anesthetics perfected in such clinics and released from them. Unless this viewpoint is accepted and this obligation is assumed by the membership, the educational committee of the association faces too difficult a problem. It is just as necessary to have an articulate membership as it is important to have educational committee work publicized. An organization is basically sound and truly successful -to the degree and extent that the majority membership is responsive to its needs and contributes to its program;-to bring this about is one of the important objectives attached to all educational plans.

In the sixth "object," which has as its objective the publicizing and circulating of informative material through proper channels such as: presentation of papers at meetings; publicizing of programs of activities; publishing of current scientific data in the official "Bulletin" of the organization, or through other legitimate and available journals. In short, the objectives of this "object" is to make prominent the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists as an educational organization, and to place emphasis on the work contributed to the subject of anesthesiology by its members.

The Committee on Publications, serving all committees and membership alike, is the primary medium through which these objectives are emphasized. The quality of contributions made for publication will decide the place given the association's official journal among other and similar publications. The great objective here is to constantly raise the level of such contributions to a continuing high level of excellence. The only way this can be done effectively

is by the contributors exercising discriminating judgment in selection of a topic, and making careful study of and exact research in the subject chosen for presentation. To those of us watching with careful attention the development of this part of our program, the steady improvement in the articles published from the membership is certainly gratifying and encouraging. It can be counted as an index of success in efforts to accomplish in some measure, the everwidening objective of arousing the intellectual curiosity of a membership on subjects pertinent for study and publication, thus opening up the field for more and better contributions to the "Bulletin."

Incorporated into the "Bulletin" as a section thereof is the "Department of Education"—a medium through which the teaching program of the association is released. As an introductory article, already published, inclusively covered the function, scope and objectives of this department, we will not further particularize here except to state that the value of this section becomes increasingly evident with each issue, and its future holds promise of still greater usefulness.

That the of creating purpose in the minds of our members an increasing awareness of the potential value of the student body has met with some success, is shown by the interest taken in the subject of student education by state associations and individual members. We hope that every effort which has as its object creating a stronger bond of interest between student and graduate groups will be recognized as important in its implication, and encouraged and fostered wherever and whenever it appears.

This increased interest in the educational program is also evidenced in more excellent papers presented at state and sectional meetings. Another important objective of such meetings is the interest created in our organization by surgeons and medical anesthetist specialists, who by contributing to such programs have added stimulus and benefit to the meetings.

It seems realistically evident to the writer that responsibility for the comfort and safety of the patient and satisfactoriness of the anesthesia does not vary in any degree because of the professional status of the anesthetist. This being ipso facto the situation, it would seem that encouragement given in making such service as excellent as possible, and by continuing efforts raise the quality of work done and keep it in progress with advancement of the subject, is the best way to approach this problem. And our only hope of obtaining a constructive solution to the problems inherent in it is by full cooperation with major medical groups also concerned. The Committee on Education acknowledges with appreciation all contributions made by the major medical groups to the educational program of this association.

We have now encompassed discussion of basic objectives which are essentially educational in nature and extent. We have also indicated by inferential interpretation that the constitutional duties of a committee on education involve responsibility to the Board of Trustees for the creation, presentation and direction of an educational program, and release into action of sanctioned plans inherent in such a program. We have also endeavored to relate how well these responsibilities have been met, and to what extent the educational program has progressed.

You are aware, from reading committee reports, that the program

planned has not as yet been completely set in motion. Certain essential divisions, concerned with survey and accrediting of schools of anesthesia, examination and certification of qualified students, and official registration in the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists, under to be defined conditions, of member nurse anesthetists—are still in committee under final study. We are hopeful that within the year—optimistically, at the next annual meeting—presentation of this entire program will be made.

A few years ago I wrote a short editorial for the "Bulletin," in which, among other things, I tried to make clear the burden carried by the leaders of our organization; pointing out that the arduous work of carrying on the business of the association was superimposed on busy women actively engaged as practicing anesthetists. I again emphasize here that practically all of the project work of the organization is now carried on through volunteer committees. I add that I do not believe there is an organization of the size and activity of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists that has had the degree of devotion given to it by such comparatively small groups of national and state volunteer workers. responsibility should be more equally divided, and more widely shared. All members of state and sectional associations should cooperate with their officers in the development of state and sectional groups. Attending state and sectional meetings should be considered as important to the success of the meeting as presenting a paper is to the program. Contributions asked for the advancement of state projects should be met by all members to the extent and ability of the individual. State associations and sectional groups should take their

share in helping with national projects. If such a program of interest be made the basis upon which all our work is planned, and the incentive of enthusiastic efforts towards progress, the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists has indeed a splendid future before it.

This brings us to the third and last part of this theme—"The Challenge of the Future." What is it? How shall we meet it?

The history of the past contains the challenge of the future. In historical content the work our organization represents dates back to antiquity. It has been said that "the desire to alleviate pain is as old as man." In this country it is nearly one hundred years (1842) since Crawford Long first administered ether, with the fortunate result of obtaining anesthesia. Nurse anesthetist service, allowing a margin for error, is at least thirty-five years old. The service was originated by surgeons of the highest standing and sponsored by hospitals of equal rating. It has always been in the hands of qualified nurse anesthetists, possessing intelligence and good judgment, and exercising both in relation to the needs of the work. Nurse anesthetist service has therefore come (aside from the formal date of organization) to full maturity, and any other interpretation of its status will tend to delay the accomplishment of its future educational aims.

I have tried in this paper to emphasize the *importance* and *value* of work accomplished *since* organization.

We have said that the challenge of the future is contained in the past. This, literally interpreted, means that if the challenge is to be met, the programs of the past must be consolidated into the plans of the present; and the program of the present widened to include broader plans for the future; as the context of this paper indicates, an educational widening of organizational design—is our objective, and within that objective lies the answer to the challenge now being made to the nurse anesthetist group.

Realistically stated, the challenge is embodied in the progress made in anesthesiology. Within the last fifteen years this subject has made tremendous strides - First, in regard to an aroused interest in scientific research. Second, by the application of the results of this research to problems involved in the administration of anesthetics, results of which are evidenced in the increasing number of newer anesthetics (general and basal) released from scientific study to practical use. Third, the perfecting of techniques of administration of these newer anesthetic combinations. Fourth, the scientific development of apparatus constructed to provide safety and economy in the administration of anesthetics. Fifth, the increased use and better control of gas therapy in indicated medical and surgical cases.

Thus has the field of anesthesiology widened.

This development contains a challenge which the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists is striving to meet through its educational programs - which, as the text of this thesis intimates, is concerned with providing through indicated channels - first, such directive instruction to the practicing nurse anesthetist as will assist her in keeping in pace with progress. Second, stabilizing present systems of instruction now given in schools of anesthesia, and endeavoring to establish a minimum standard of education in such schools-so that the basic training given students will better prepare

them for service after graduation. The first step in this program was taken with the publication of the curriculum of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists. As stated, the rest of the school program is under way. Third, establishing measures to protect qualified members by instituting within, the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists some form of official registration which will carry with it a title to designate qualifications, and to distinguish between members so qualified—and non-members not so qualified.

While these statements broadly summarize the objects of our program, the real answer to the challenge lies in the hands of practicing anesthetists, most specifically in the hands of our members. Acquiring knowledge and using it to the best advantage, is and will always be an individual responsibility. No organization, no matter how efficient and progressive—no program, no matter how well balanced and inclusive, can act as a "Talisman" in giving knowledge without seeking and study—efficiency cannot be secured without ef-

fort. The challenge of the future can be met only by study and work. Every hospital clinic in this country contains, within itself, the implements for improvement in the subject practiced. Every one of us has ready at our hand the accumulation of knowledge gained through the years -a free gift to all who seek it. In the seeking and use of this knowledge lies the true answer to the challenge, and the future security and progress of nurse anesthetists depends in large measure on the manner in which each individual member, within her own sphere, meets this challenge. The American Association of Nurse Anesthetists can make secure the future of the membership only to the degree and extent that the members themselves realize that making Nurse Anesthetist service distinguished for high quality, is a gift that must be given to the organization by its membership.

The American Association of Nurse Anesthetists asks that gift from each and every one of its members. Coronado Beach, Florida April 11, 1941

ANESTHESIA IN NEUROSURGERY

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The relationship between the neurosurgeon and his anesthetist is a unique one. Perhaps no surgeon uses anesthesia so sparingly or so simply as does the neurosurgeon; yet, probably no surgeon is so dependent upon his anesthetist as he.

The explanation for this apparent paradox lies in the fact that in neurosurgery the anesthetist fulfills a dual rôle. Not only is

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she the conventional narcotist, but, in addition, if she be good, she is very much of a physiologist,—observing, interpreting and reporting to the surgeon physiologic phenomena taking place during the course of the

operation which directly influence the neurosurgeon as to the choice and extent of the procedure he will follow. In operations upon the brain, the surgeon may stop the operation with the tumor only partially removed, to return for a second stage a day or two later, if an experienced anesthetist tells him that she "does not like the way the patient looks;" or he may stay with the tumor and get it completely out in one long, gruelling session if the anesthetist tells him the patient is "all right" for the try.

There is very little or nothing that I can tell anyone in this audience about the administration of anesthesia that you do not already know far better than I. Therefore, I shall touch only briefly upon this first phase of the anesthetist's work dealing with the actual narcotization of the patient; and shall devote most of my time to the other phase of her work having to do with various physiologic factors other than the anesthetizing drug which influence the course of an operation upon the brain, and which the anesthetist may be called upon to recognize and interpret for the guidance of the surgeon during the course of the operation.

The Factor of the Anesthetic

We may take as a starting point in our discussion the fact that brain operations, in general, last a long time. Rarely can any major neurosurgical procedure be completed within an hour. Two and three-hour operations are the rule; five and sixhour operations are very frequent; and occasionally, with large, deeply placed and highly vascular tumors, seven, eight or even nine hours are spent at the operating table. The immediate result of this is that local anesthesia is used whenever possible in neurosurgery, in place of general anesthesia.

Fortunately, surgery of the brain

lends itself to local anesthesia extremely well. It is an interesting fact, which many of you may not know, that the skin is practically the only structure which must be narcotized in performing a craniotomy. There are no pain conducting nerve fibres in the bones of the skull (or the periosteum), in the membranes enveloping the brain, or in the brain itself. It is a curious fact that incisions may be made into the brain and parts of it removed—even those parts which receive the pain fibres coming from the rest of the body - without the patient feeling any discomfort.

A second fact favoring the use of local anesthesia for craniotomy is that there are no muscles which must be relaxed, in order for the surgeon to expose the operative field, as is the case with abdominal surgery.

Once the scalp has been well infiltrated, practically the only reason that exists for the use of additional anesthesia is to allay the patient's apprehension, and to keep him quiet during the delicate parts of the operation. In the great majority of instances, these objectives can usually be attained quite satisfactorily by means of a preliminary hypodermic of morphine (1/6 grain to 1/4 grain), and scopolamine (1/300 grain to 1/200 grain), supplemented, if necessary, with avertin or with pentothal. There are very few exceptions to this general rule. In children, however, ether vapor, given by the open drip methed, has proved to be the most satisfactory anesthetic; and is practically the sole anesthetic used by us at the Neurological Institute for children. Ether vapor is also used from time to time with uncooperative or violent adults whom the avertin does not control. In general, however, ether is avoided whenever possible, not only because of the length of time during which it must, as a rule, be given;

but also because ether seems to cause cerebral congestion, which in turn increases bleeding, and makes operating more difficult.

Morphine, scopolamine, avertin, pentothal, and ether are, then, the narcotizing drugs which we regularly use at the New York Neurological Institute for our brain operations. They are simple in nature, few in number, and the methods of administering them are no different from the methods used in other fields of surgery. The only difference between their use in neurosurgery and their use in other branches of surgery, is. that, with ether, the depth of general anesthesia required in surgery of the brain is much less than is required in other fields.

Now, in addition to the effect of the drug used for anesthesia, which, as you see, in the majority of brain operations plays only a minor rôle, there are other factors peculiar to surgery of the brain which have a direct bearing upon the condition of the patient undergoing an operation upon the brain as observed by the anesthetist. It is the appreciation and interpretation of these factors which help the experienced anesthetist so much in appraising the patient's condition, in anticipating trouble, and in correctly advising the surgeon.

The Factor of Time

The time factor is the first which we will consider. As has already

The anesthetist's chart of a patient who had a frontal lobe of the brain extirpated, and a large tumor removed under local anesthesia. The operation required over eight hours. Yet note that there occurred no significant fluctuation in blood or pulse pressure; and no rise in pulse rate except when the patient became restless. Note also the large volume of blood and other fluids given the patient to replace those lost.

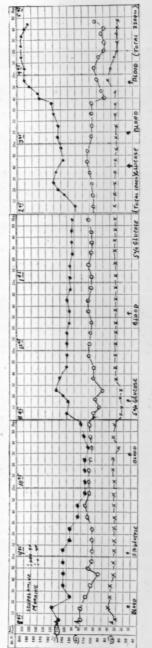


FIG. 1.

been stated, operations upon the brain usually last a long time. influence which this has in the choice of the anesthetic has already been discussed. You have probably assumed, too, that the long operating time with the brain exposed would tend to induce shock, as it certainly would in other parts of the body. Curiously, enough, however, we see very little shock in brain surgery. True surgical shock—that is, primary vasomotor collapse, with collapse of blood pressure levels and the pulse pressure-rarely occurs in brain operations if fluids are replaced as lost, and the patient is shielded from pain. One can extirpate great sections of the brain,-a frontal lobe, or entire posterior half of a cerebral hemisphere,—with hardly a fluctuation in blood pressure, or pulse rate (Figure 1.) Even after severe injuries to the head and brain, with laceration of the brain and hemorrhage into it, a state of shock, such as accompanies such injuries in other parts of the body, does not, as a rule, occur.

There are two situations in neurosurgery, however, under which shock may occur: (1) In operations carried cut beneath the frontal lobe in the region of the pituitary gland and the hypothalamus, the vasomoter center, which directly affects blood pressure, may be injured. When this happens, vasomotor collapse occurs and typical surgical shock. 2) In operations performed with the patient in the upright, sitting position, gravity plays a rôle in producing a fall of blood pressure.

In general, it may be said that short of five to six hours, the duration of the operation has only a slight effect upon the patient's vital signs and status. Should these appear adversely affected, other factors than the time must be sought.

The Factor of Fluid Loss

A second factor rather peculiar to brain surgery, and which has a very great bearing upon the condition of the patient during a brain operation, is the tremendous loss of body fluids which frequently takes place. Today, in general surgery, with the careful modern technique, operations are regularly performed on almost all parts of the body,—excepting the head and brain-with hardly any loss of blood. Few brain tumor operations, however, are performed in which there is not lost 350 cc. to 500 cc. of blood; and with some of the larger and more vascular tumors as much as 1000 cc. to 1500 cc.

In addition to the loss of blood there also occurs great loss of other body fluids during the long hours in the over-heated operating room under the thick drapes—with, of course, the head partly covered. During the hot summer months, this loss of body fluid may be very, very great. results partially from perspiration and partly by way of the lungs. Practically all of our patients are given 500 cc. of 5 per cent glucose in Ringer's solution intravenously by slow drip during the course of the operation; and during the longer operations, especially in the summer, they may be given 1500 to 2000 cc. glucose in saline quite apart from any blood which they may get (Figure 1).

Losses of body fluids will be evidenced in the patient's vital signs and reflected in the appearance of the chart by a rising pulse rate and a falling blood pressure. If such changes appear in the vital signs, the possibility that they are due to loss of body fluids must be considered and effective measures taken to counteract them.

Blood may be lost in two ways during a brain operation—(1) either as the result of a sudden, violent but

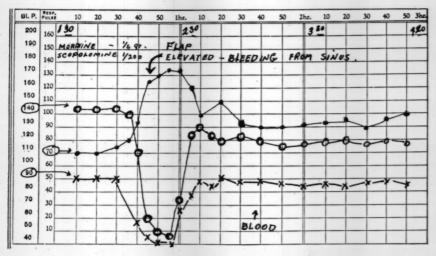


FIG. 2.

Anesthetist's chart showing typical fall of blood following a sudden violent hemorrhage early in the operation. Note that while the blood and pulse pressures dropped alarmingly, they quickly returned to approximately the original levels, even before transfusion. This was due to the fact that the vasomotor system was still fresh, and was able to compensate for the loss of volume in the vascular bed (compare with Fig. 3).

short-lived hemorrhage from some large vessel; (2) as the result of a long-continued oozing from very many small bleeding points. In the first instance there occurs a precipitate drop in the blood pressure and pulse pressure, so that neither may be obtained. This occurs most characteristically while the bone is being sawed and the flap elevated; i. e., during the early stages of the operation. While it is very alarming to observe, such a sudden drop is rarely serious; and, if the bleeding point is soon found and the hemorrhage stopped, the pressures, as a rule, quickly return to their former levels,-even without the benefit of a transfusion. This is particularly true when it occurs in the early stages of the operation and is so because the vasomotor system, which controls blood pressure, is still fresh and is able to compensate for the loss of blood volume.

However, a transfusion should be given after such a drop, in spite of the return of the blood pressure to original levels, as a prophylactic measure, and in order to relieve the vasomotor system of this extra burden and prevent it from becoming prematurely exhausted during the subsequent stages of the operation (Figure 2).

In the second form of bleeding, where there occurs a general oozing from numerous small fresh bleeding points during several hours' time, the fall of the blood pressure is slow and gradual, and at first is compensated for by increased activity of the vasomotor system. But as the operation continues hour after hour, the vasomotor system itself gradually becomes fatigued, relaxes its effort, and allows the blood pressure levels, and especially the pulse pressure, to fall. In these cases, transfusions will not

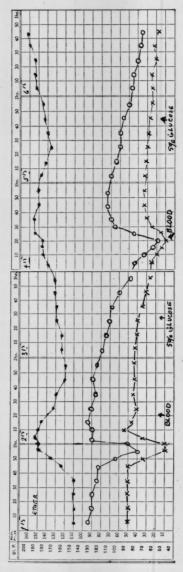


FIG. 3.

A typical chart in an operation where there was persistent oozing from many small bleeding points over a long period of time. Note that the first fall in blood was quickly compensated for by a vigorous vasomotor response, even before blood was replaced. But as time passed, and the

have the same powerful action in reelevating the blood pressure as they had earlier in the operation, because of the exhausted state of the vasomotor mechanism (Figure 3). When this situation develops, it should serve as a warning that the patient is reaching the limit of his endurance. The best thing to do under such circumstances is to terminate this phase of the operation as soon as possible and complete it at a second session. The surgeon, however, may be so engrossed in the technical demands of his operation that these changes and their significance may escape him, unless they be forced upon his attention by the alert anesthetist.

Mechanical Factors

There are certain mechanical factors—dependent principally upon the unusual positions in which patients may be placed for brain operations which have a direct bearing upon the conduct and the outcome of the op-

Patients are commonly placed in one of three standard positions: First, on the back, face up, or face turned slightly to one side. (Figure 4) This is the position employed in performing "bone flap" operations—used to expose the cerebral hemispheres. This position presents no particular problem and needs no further discussion.

The second position is that in which the patient lies on his stomach, face down. This is used to expose the back part and base of the brain, including the cerebellum and the medulla oblongata (Figure 5). This position carries with it certain peculiar

vasomotor system became increasingly fatigued, there occurred a slow but persistent fall in blood pressure levels, particularly in the pulse pressure, which reacted only sluggishly and temporarily to additional blood transfusions. This indicates a dangerous condition.

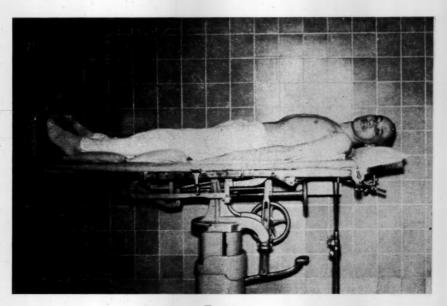


FIG. 4.

The position of the patient for "bone flap" operations used to expose the cerebral hemispheres. This position offers no particular problems to the anesthetist.

problems having to do with the maintenance of a free airway. The surgeon, for instance, will usually want the head to be flexed as far forward as possible, with the chin hard against the chest, for in this position he will obtain the easiest and widest exposure of the operative field at the base of the skull (Figure 6-B). The anesthetist, on the other hand, will find that this position tends to close the epiglottis and to interfere mechanically with the free exchange of air. She will wish to have the head dorsi-flexed in a position of partial extension in order to free the glottis, and insure better mechanical exchange of air (Figure 6-A).

As a matter of practice, neither the surgeon nor the anesthetist can have their own way entirely, and a compromise must be worked out between the two. The wise surgeon will

usually follow the wishes of his anesthetist in this matter, since he knows that the partial asphyxia which occurs with a poor exchange of air, causes an immediate and marked venous congestion of the brain, with increased bleeding; and also causes the brain to swell up and tend to push out through the opening in the skull, which, in turn, may cause serious rupture of either brain tissue or blood vessels. The anesthetist, for her part, should understand and be sympathetic with the difficulties of the surgeon in getting a good exposure of the operative field, and should yield as much to his wishes as she can do safely. The one absolute demand of the situation, however, is that a completely free exchange of air be established and maintained, a point which is a "first principle" in brain surgery and cannot be stressed

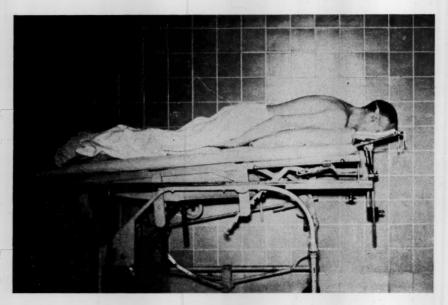
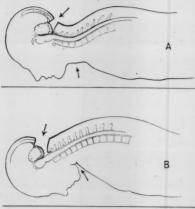


FIG. 5.

The face-down position, used for exposing the cerebellum and the medulla oblongata, at the back and base of the brain, presents many problems to the anesthetist.



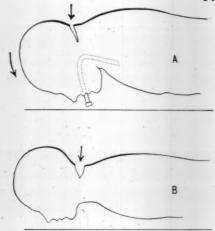
too greatly. It has been found that, by and large, the best guarantee of such a free airway is to have the patient conscious; and this is another one of the many reasons why brain operations are performed so often under local anesthesia.

Occasionally, however, there will be a patient who will not cooperate and who will need a general anesthetic, such as ether. If he be an adult, we are apt to pass an intratracheal tube after he is asleep, following which the head may be sharply flexed to al-

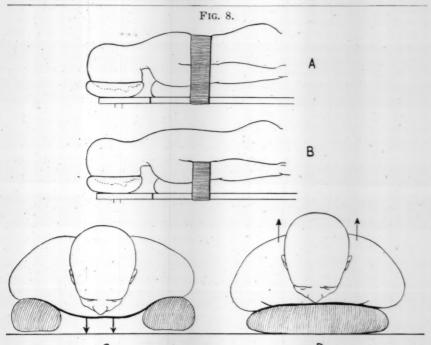
Fig. 6

In the face-down, or cerebellar position, the anesthetist would like to have the head dorsi-flexed (A) since this frees the trachea and the epiglottis, and assures a free exchange of gas, which is essential. The surgeon, on the other hand, would like the head anti-flexed as far as possible (B) since this aids him in getting a good exposure of the cerebellum (see arrows).

A compromise must be worked out.



Ether must sometimes be given to uncoöperative patients, who have to be operated upon in the face-down position. If they be adults, especially with short thick necks (A) it is difficult to anti-flex the head far enough to obtain an adequate exposure of the cerebellum without closing off the airway. In such patients an intratracheal tube is very valuable. In children, however, this is rarely necessary, since the head is relatively large, and the muscles of the neck and back comparatively small (B) so that exposure of the operative field as a rule is quite easy.



Restraints should not be applied in such a way as to interfere with free respiratory movements (A). They are best applied to the extremities leaving the thorax entirely free (B).

The patient's shoulders should rest upon two sandbags or other similar supports, annd the thorax suspended between them (A). In this way the chest can expand freely, without effort. If the patient be placed with his chest flat on the table or other firm support, he must lift his body upward with each inspiration. This adds tremendously to the respiratory effort.

low the surgeon maximum exposure at the back of the head and neck without any danger of interfering with the free exchange of gas (Figure 7-A). In children, the intratracheal catheter is rarely necessary, however, for the reason that the head is usually relatively large and the muscles of the back relatively small, so that exposure of the desired region can be made, as a rule, without the necessity of bending the head forward (Figure 7-B).

Other mechanical factors arising in connection with this face down position, which affect in a major way the respiratory exchange during an operation and thus the welfare of the patient, have to do with the methods of his support and restraint on the table. The patient's shoulders should rest upon two sand bags or similar supports; and the thoracic cage be suspended between them in such a way that the respiratory movements are entirely free (Figure 8-C). should not be placed flat upon the table, even with a pillow under him (Figure 8-D). In this position, each time he expands his chest, he must lift the weight of his body off the table. Over the course of a long operation this adds greatly to the burden imposed on the respiratory mechanism, and may be a potent factor contributing to respiratory exhaustion and failure. Moreover, restraints should not be applied over the back of the thorax, for this will greatly hamper the respiratory effort (Figure 8-A). Rather, they should be applied solely to the extremities (Figure 8-B). Details such as these may have a great effect upon the outcome of a close operation.

The third or sitting position is used in operations for trigeminal neuralgia and for certain brain tumors (Figure 9). The advantage of this position is that bleeding from the



FIG. 9.

The upright or sitting position is used in certain cases. The advantage of this position is that there is less bleeding from the scalp, bone and brain, than when the head is low.

scalp, skull and brain is less with the head thus elevated than when the head is down low. There is, however, one drawback to it; namely, that it places a greater burden upon the heart and vasomotor system, than does the horizontal position. the patient is lying flat, the heart has only to pump the blood with sufficient force to maintain the blood pressure levels normal for that individual; whereas, when the patient is sitting upright, the heart must exert, in addition to that, enough force to overcome the action of gravity operating throughout the distance between the top of the head and the tip of the toes (Figure 10). This adds a very considerable burden to heart, and to the vasomotor system, with the result that fatigue and exhaustion of these two systems are more apt to occur with the patient in this position, than when he' is lying down. Should exhaustion of

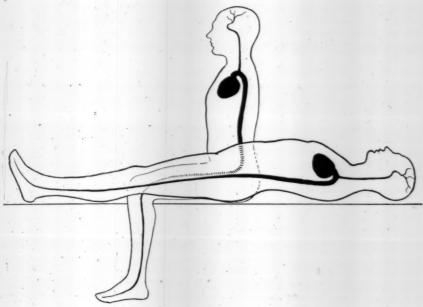


FIG. 10.

The disadvantage of the upright position is here indicated. With the patient in this position the heart must overcome the force of gravity in addition to maintaining the normal blood pressure levels. Cardiovascular fatigue is, therefore, more apt to occur in the upright than in the horizontal position. For this reason, it should not be used with debilitated patients, or those who have been bedridden for some time before operation.

either the heart or the vasomotor system occur, there follows a fall of blood pressure, which closely resembles a true state of shock.

Only carefully selected patients should be operated upon in the upright position. In particular, any patient who has been confined to bed for a length of time prior to operation should not be placed in this position, since the vasomotor system has certainly lost some of its tone, and may not be able to maintain proper blood pressure levels throughout a long operation. In all patients operated upon in the upright position, the anesthetist should be particularly alert for signs of impending vasomotor fatigue and collapse. When such a condition seems imminent, adrenalin and ephedrine should be given and intravenous fluids, preferably blood. If the patient does not respond to this therapy, it may be necessary to terminate the operation as quickly as possible and place him in a horizontal position. Fortunately, this complication is rare, but when it does take place it constitutes a real emergency.

Specific Neurologic Factors

In addition to the above factors, there are certain other factors present only in surgery of the brain, which are entirely inherent in the structure and function of the brain.

Any general increase of intracranial pressure, of course, forces blood out of the brain and thereby causes rel-

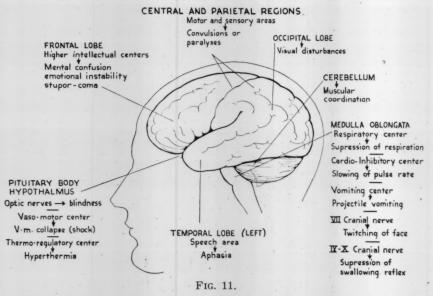
ative anoxemia; and this is shown by drowsiness, stupor and coma. When this anoxemia affects the medulla oblongata, where the respiratory center is located, the respirations are suppressed; and if the anoxemia be severe enough and lasts long enough, the respiratory center will cease functioning completely and permanently. This-and not cardiac failure—is the usual mechanism of death with increased intracranial pressure due to whatever cause. This process is greatly accelerated if the medulla is compressed directly by a tumor or, during operation, by a retractor. Respiratory failure constitutes an omnipresent threat to life in all cases of increased intracranial pressure. Any change in the character or the rate of the respirations is, therefore, more immediately important than

changes in the pulse rate or the blood pressure; and should be reported to the surgeon at once.

In addition to the effects of general intracranial pressure upon the brain, there are certain other physiologic and neurologic reactions arising from local pressure on particular parts of the brain; these should be known to the anesthetist, as well as their significance (Figure 11).

The frontal lobe is the seat of the higher intellectual faculties. Any disturbance here results in altered consciousness, leading through drowsiness to coma.

The central portion of the cerebrum contains the primary centers for motion and sensation of the arms, legs, face and body (of the opposite side). Injury here may cause convulsions or paralysis.



The various important regions of the brain, and the functions residing in them are here shown. Of particular interest to the anesthetist is the hypothalamic region where vasomotor and heat regulating centers appear to be located; and the medulla oblongata, where the respiratory center is situated.

The arrows in the figure should be translated to read "disturbance here causes"

The temporal lobe (on the left side in right-handed individuals) harbors the faculties of speech. Injuries here may interfere greatly with speech or, indeed, prevent it entirely.

The hypothalamic region, which lies beneath and behind the frontal lobe close to the pituitary gland, controls in some manner two very important vital functions; namely, (a) the vasomotor activity, responsible for the maintenance of normal blood pressure, and (b) the heat regulating mechanism, which controls the body temperature. In operations performed in this region of the brain, either or both of these centers may be disturbed. When the vasomotor center is affected, there is a primary collapse of vasomotor tone with fall of blood pressure and shock. Practically the only cases of brain operation where this occurs are those performed in this region.

Disturbance of the heat regulating center will produce so-called malignant hyperthermia, in which condition the patient's temperature may rise from normal to 105 or 106, within a half hour to an hour; and even mount to 107 and 108, causing rapid death. The tendency to hyperthermia almost always appears before the completion of the operation, so that whenever surgical procedures are being carried out in this region, the anesthetist should observe the temperature of the skin frequently and, if it feels abnormally warm, she should obtain a rectal temperature while the operation is still under way. Large doses of powdered aspirin by rectum and continuous tepid sponging will frequently abort the hyperthermia if these measures are instituted early enough; whereas they are of little avail when instituted late.

Operations for tumors in the cerebellar fossa at the base of the brain bring the surgeon close to the medulla oblongata, where it is easy for him to disturb important and vital centers. Chief among these is the respiratory center, situated in the medul-Too forceful retraction or the weight of a small pack over a bleeding area may suffice to interfere greatly with the action of this center and may even cause it to stop functioning altogether. For this reason any change in character, or any suppression in the rhythm of the respirations, should be reported at once to the surgeon, since they indicate that he is in a dangerous situation. A hasty or unguarded move at this point might cause a permanent cessation of respiration, and the patient's death.

The medulla oblongata contains other centers influencing the pulse rate and the vomiting reflex. Disturbances of these centers may cause slowing of the heart on the one hand, or vomiting on the other. Although these may be very annoying to the surgeon, they do not carry the same vital import as do changes in the respiratory rhythm. They are mentioned here briefly, merely that the anesthetist may appreciate the mechanisms which produce these symptoms, and evaluate them correctly.

Emotional Factor

Finally, there is another factor which is of great importance in neurosurgical patients; namely, the patient's emotional status during a long, harrowing operation, performed under local anesthesia.

Pain will work directly upon the patient's physical status and cause a harmful change. I have frequently observed sharp, abrupt, and often permanent falls in blood pressure following immediately after a patient has been hurt during an operation under local anesthesia, when there was no other explanation for these changes. The patient must be

watched carefully for evidence of actual pain. Many times this is due to the effect of the novocaine wearing off. A word to the surgeon and the injection of a few cc. of fresh novocaine will put an end to this pain.

Anxiety will send the blood pressure and the pulse rate skyrocketing, and will keep it there as long as the patient is fearful and restless. Over a period of time this increase of pressure and pulse rate will add greatly to the burden on the heart and the vasomotor system, and will contribute mightily to fatigue.

If the anesthetist can win the patient's confidence by her sympathy, understanding and helpfulness, she can do much to allay these emotional factors, and thereby contribute in no small measure to the successful completion of these long and tedious operations under local anesthesia. Her effort in this direction is often the factor which swings the scale in the direction of success.

POSTOPERATIVE PULMONARY COMPLICATIONS

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The chest complications which sometimes follow surgical procedures are of great concern to surgeons and anesthetists. The surgeon fears them because they may spell the difference between success or failure in certain cases. For example, Gray stated "Pulmonary complications constitute the greatest single hazard in abdominal surgery, and if death cannot be ascribed to them, not infrequently they reduce the actual defensive forces so that a fatal outcome ensues when recovery might otherwise have followed." The anesthetist fears such complications, because, although the terms "ether pneumonia" and "postanesthetic chest complications" are no longer tenable, the surgeon expects the Anesthesia Department to share the responsibility and in some instances to assist in the care during the postoperative period.

The rôle of the anesthetic in the development of chest complications is

Read at the joint meeting of the anesthetists of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan and Wisconsin, held in Chicago, May 7-8, 1941.

not well established. Cutler minimized it when he said2 "There must be something beyond the simple irritation of the anesthetic and the humidity of chilling to bring about so much definite pulmonary disease. Postoperative pulmonary complications were thought to be due to the aspiration of and irritation which accompanied inhalation anesthetics previous to the introduction of infiltration anesthesia. Similar complications, however, followed the use of local anesthetics and all types of postoperative complications occur in about the same percentage in local and inhalation anesthesia."

At the Henry Ford Hospital, there has been a special study during the past three years of postoperative chest

complications by the Surgical and Anesthesia Departments. Each anesthetist keeps a record of the anesthetics she administers, and makes several follow-up visits to each patient. If a complication develops, the essential facts are recorded for later reference. The data include: facts about the operation, postoperative day, provisional diagnosis of complication, x-ray reports, cardiorespiratory consultations, and the results of treatment. Once a month, the doctor in charge of anesthesia conducts a meeting attended by the anesthetists and floor residents to review the previous month's work. Each case which has been provisionally diagnosed as having a pulmonary complication is discussed and all evidence is presented. In a typical meeting, it would be decided that six or eight cases had had a complication worth recording. Some of the data asembled for the years 1939 and 1940, will be presented at this time.

During this period, 11,597 anesthetics

were administered, and the following complications were encountered:

Complication No. of Cases Fatalities Bronchopneumonia

or lobar pneumonia	51	8
Atelectasis	32	
Bronchitis	7	
Pleurisy	2	
Lung abscess	1	1
Totals	03	0

We have found that there is a definite seasonal incidence in chest complications. For example, in 1939 (see Figure 1), there was an epidemic of upper respiratory disease in the community in February. In spite of the fact that the total number of operations was curtailed, a peak in the postoperative complications occurred in that month. During such an epidemic period, it may be advisable to postpone elective operations, and for those operations which are done, the anesthetic which has the least tendency to be associated with pulmonary complications should be

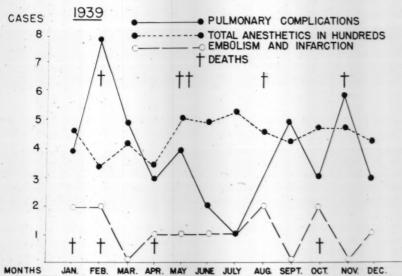


Figure 1. Chart showing the seasonal incidence of pulmonary complications during the year 1939.

chosen if possible, and extra vigilance during the postoperative period is indicated.

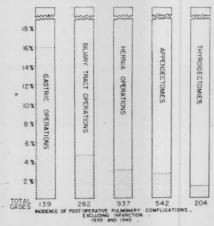


Figure 2. Incidence of pulmonary complications in various types of operations.

Figure 2 shows the relationship of pulmonary complications to the different types of operations. The incidence of complications in gastric surgery was 16 per cent. Next in order are biliary tract surgery, hernia, appendectomy, and thyroidectomy. The high incidence in upper abdominal surgery is usually thought to be due to inhibition of the motion of the diaphragm. At this point, it might be well to review briefly the mechanics of respiration. This has been summarized by Guis as follows:

"The normal lung is expanded by hydraulic traction on the visceral pleura by the outward moving thoracic walls. Thus, the lungs play only a passive rôle in respiration and are subject to changes in the chest wall and diaphragm. During inspiration, the thoracic cavity is increased in all diameters. The portions of the lung which are expanded directly are those in contact with freely movable boundaries of the thorax, namely, the sternum, ribs and diaphragm. With descent of

the diaphragm, there is a decrease in the intrapleural pressure which is considerably greater in the supradiaphragmatic region than in other areas. It is estimated that the action of the diaphragm is responsible for about 60 per cent of the ventilation of the lung normally. During respiration, the diaphragm moves up and down like a piston and changes its shape only slightly. The costosternal part moves downward and forward and pushes the abdominal viscera before it. The abdominal wall distends but when resistance is offered by the abdominal muscles, the downward movement of the viscera is hindered. At this point, the force of the diaphragm is split in raising the lower ribs to which it is attached. It is obvious, therefore, that conditions which alter intra-abdominal pressure, such as distention, peritoneal irritation, abdominal wound pain and associated spasm, will influence the diaphragmatic excursion and ventilation of the lung."

It appears, then, that the high, immobile diaphragm is probably the cause of the many cases of atelectasis and other chest complications which accompany upper abdominal surgery. To combat this tendency toward diaphragmatic inhibition, the surgeon chooses incisions which split the abdominal muscles longitudinally, rather than cutting them transversely. Quick recovery from the anesthetic and the encouragement of deep breathing by the use of carbon dioxide is valuable prophylactically. Postoperative sedation should be of such a nature that it relieves apprehension and the pain of abdominal breathing, and does not depress respirations.

Figure 3 shows the relationship of anesthetic agents to the incidence of pulmonary complications. The patients in 0.08 per cent of 6535 inhalation anesthesias had complications, 0.04 per cent in 3723 local anesthesias, and 4.0 per

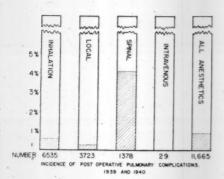


Figure 3. Relationship of the anesthetic agent to pulmonary complications.

cent of 1378 spinal anesthesias were followed by a complication. The fact that spinal anesthesia shows the highest incidence does not mean that that agent is responsible. It is more likely that the types of operations (for example, gastric surgery) and the types of patients for whom spinal anesthesia was selected, should be considered more as the determining factors.

Nevertheless, the very low incidence of complications in local and intravenous anesthesia must be significant.

We believe that nursing care is an important factor in the prevention of pulmonary complications. Frequent changes of position, postural drainage and guarding against the inhalation of vomitus, and deep breathing exercises, are valuable.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Data on a two-year follow-up of pulmonary complications at the Henry Ford Hospital have been presented. The winter months showed an increased incidence. Local anesthesia was associated with very few complications. Special precautions are necessary in gastric and biliary surgery.

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Cutlér, E. C.: Surg. Gynec. Obst., 68:340, 1939.

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REBREATHING IN ANESTHESIA

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In inhalation anesthesia, irrespective of the technique employed, there is rebreathing of exhaled gases. Placing the simplest and smallest mask over the face of a patient immediately institutes some rebreathing. It is even present in the open drop techniques of anesthesia. This rebreathing is increased by the layers of gauze, and the wrapping of towels around the mask. Such arrangements are frequently termed semi-open techniques. Those devices in which the inhaled gases are completely enclosed, but which allow exhalations to pass out

of the system through a valve are called semi-closed techniques (Figure 1). Some degree of rebreathing occurs in these, particularly if the valve is not efficient. In the completely closed systems, where there is no communication whatever to the outside air, rebreathing is complete. Three things may occur if rebreathing is not carefully controlled: (1) Carbon dioxide may not be adequately eliminated and accumulates in amounts which may cause physiological disturbances. (2) Sufficient oxygen may not be available in the

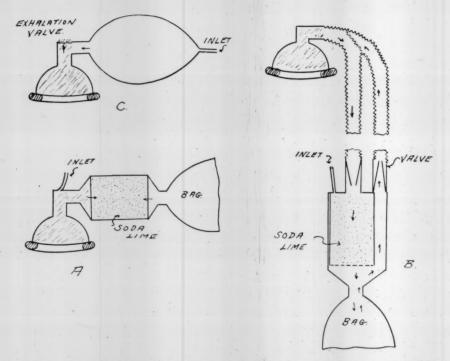


Figure I. A diagrammatic representation of the "to and fro" (A) and "circle" (B) types of closed rebreathing appliances and of the semi-closed system. (C) The "to and fro" consists of a mask, canister, and rubber rebreathing bag. Gases are supplied into an inlet attached to the mask. The "circle" filter consists of a canister equipped with two valves connected to a mask by tubing. The gases pass over the lime in an undirectional flow. All apertures are large, approximately 2:5 centimeters in diameter, to minimize resistance. The connecting pieces are as short as possible from the mask to the inlet tube of the "circle" and to the inlet of the canister of the "to and fro" to minimize the "dead space." The valves are ordinarily constructed of light soft rubber. In these units where the valves are constructed in disc form, the construction is of light metal. The semi-closed system consists of a rebreathing bag with a delivery tube, and a mask equipped with an adjustable disc valve. The amount of rebreathing is controlled by efficiency and the adjustments made on the valve. The resistance to expiration may be high in this type of unit. The shaded area represents the "dead space" in these appliances.

system for the subject, and (3) Excessive resistance to inspiration or expiration or both may be present.

Carbon dioxide may be adequately removed by chemical methods. Soda lime, which is the best absorbent for this purpose, is placed in a suitable canister, which comprises part of the rebreathing unit. Two general types of completely closed systems are in current use (Figure 1): (1) The "circle filter," in which tubes conduct exhalations over the soda lime in one direction and then back to the patient. Valves interposed at the outlet and inlet of the canister permit an undirectional flow of gases only, and (2) The "to and fro," where exhalations

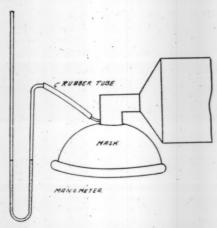


Figure II. A water manometer may be connected to the mask to measure resistance to these units. A negative or positive pressure develops in the mask with inspiration and expiration respectively. The greater the ease with which the gases pass in and out of the system the less the magnitude of this pressure.

pass from the mask directly through the soda lime into a bag and back through the canister on inspiration. The details of this chemical absorption have been described elsewhere.*

Proper oxygen tension must be and is easily maintained by supplying this gas from a storage tank. Valves and meters for measuring the flow allow accurate and proper maintenance of the volume of gases in the system. The oxygen requirement of the patient varies with his metabolic rate but averages 250 cc. per minute under ordinary circumstances during anesthesia.

When a subject breathes from a partly closed or a closed system a slight negative pressure develops within the mask upon inspiration. A return of this to zero followed by slight positive pressure occurs upon expiration. During the expiratory pause the pressure again returns to zero. The magnitude

of these fluctuations of pressure depends upon the ease with which the gases pass through the unit. If a system resists the passage of gases the pressure values will be large in either negative or positive phases, depending upon type and location of the impedance. A manometer connected by tubing to the mask allows one to measure these pressures and to study the degree of resistance in various appliances (Figure 2). In well balanced and constructed systems pressures are small and can only be measured by a water manometer. In some the pressure is so little that the column of water is shifted only one or two millimeters of water in either direction.

In the construction of these units the factors that influence resistance most are the size of apertures of masks and canisters, the diameter of the intratracheal tubes, the size and shape of canisters, the length and diameter of tubing, and the presence or absence and type of valves. The smaller the openings in canisters, connecting pieces, and other parts, the greater the resistance. Diameters of apertures in any part of the system should never be less than those of the trachea. Excessive tubing length increases the surface over which gases must pass and increases friction, which is in reality an increase of resistance, from canister to mask. The length of tubes should not exceed three feet, otherwise resistance becomes excessive. Valves may be an important source of resistance also. They should be of the lightest material available and should open and close with a minimum of effort. Frequently in the "circle filter" the valves, since they are usually made of soft rubber, are efficient when new, but become stiff when old and thereby increase resistance. Stiff valves in the closed system offer resistance to one or both phases of respiration. In the semiclosed system a stiff valve offers resis-

^{*} See May, 1941, issue of the Bulletin.

tance to expiration only, and may increase rebreathing and possibly cause excess carbon dioxide to accumulate in the system. Although many types of appliances are manufactured today and resistance varies with the type and age of these appliances, the recent models of machines which are acceptable have such a low resistance that this factor is almost negligible. Resistance to respiration is less in the "to and fro" system than in the "circle." Usually in the "to and fro" it averages 2 to 2.5 millimeters of water, while in the "circle" it ranges from 5 to 10 compared under identical conditions, using a tidal volume of 500 cc. of air, a respiratory rate of 20, 8x13 centimeter cylindrical canisters and 2.5

centimeter apertures throughout. Approximately two-thirds of the resistance in the ordinary "circle filter" is attributable to tubes and valves (Figure 3). The canister with its charge of soda lime contributes less than one third. Resistance also varies with the size of the soda lime granules (Figure 4). Unblended four mesh soda lime, which is a large size granule, offers a minimum of resistance in these filters. but efficiency of absorption is low. When fine mesh lime is used resistance is markedly increased. It is essential that the proper size lime be used in these units to minimize this factor.

Resistance likewise varies with tidal volume. The greater the tidal volume the more the resistance (Figure 5).

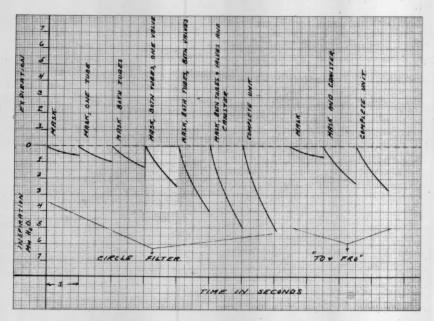


Figure III. Resistance, measured in millimeters of water, in the "circle" and "to and fro" systems is shown. In each case a tidal volume of 500 cc., a respiratory rate of 20 per minute, and an 8 x 13 centimeter canister with 2.5 centimeter apertures were used. In the "circle" filter one-half to two-thirds of this is introduced by the valves and tubing. The resistance will vary with the type of valves, diameter and length of tubing. Different commercial models will vary in the construction and therefore in the amount of resistance.

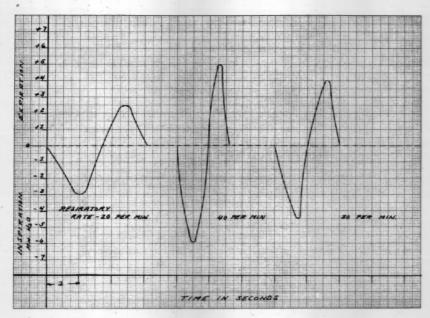


Figure IV. The effect of increasing the respiratory rate upon resistance is shown in millimeters of water. The studies were done on a "to and fro" system using a tidal volume of 500 cc. and on an 8 x 13 centimeter cylindrical canister charged with 4 x 8 mesh soda lime. The resistance in the "circle filter" under comparable conditions is considerably higher than in the "to and fro."

When all other factors are constant and the tidal volume is increased from 500 to 1000 cc. resistance usually doubles, due to the increase in the linear velocity of the air through the system. Increasing the respiratory rate has the effect of increasing the linear velocity also (Figure 6). Resistance to respiration is therefore increased when a patient breathes rapidly and of course more so when he breathes both deeply and rapidly. The shape of the canister may influence resistance also. Oblong, cylindrical, and oval shaped canisters induce the least, while conical shaped or narrow cylindrical shaped canisters induce the greatest. Resistance to respiration is harmful, particularly that to the inspiratory phase, which is believed to favor the onset of pulmonary edema.

The size of the "dead space" is an

important feature in rebreathing and deserves much consideration. The volume of the air which does not come into contact with the soda lime which may be reinhaled without being freed of carbon dioxide comprises "dead space" air. This space is the "mechanical dead space" and should not be confused with the "physiological dead space," which equals the volume of air in the pharynx and trachea. In the "circle filter" this would include the air in the mask up to the outlet tube. In the "to and fro" it would include that air in the mask up to the wire gauze in the canister. The larger the mask, the greater this space and the greater the volume of air which is rebreathed without having carbon dioxide removed. Additional tubing between the canister and the mask would

increase it. In intratracheal anesthesia, both the "mechanical dead space" and the "physiological dead space" are reduced since the tube dispenses with the air in the naso-oropharynx as well as that in the mask. Physiologists have mentioned that the "dead space" in the upper respiratory tract prevents rapid and abrupt changes in alveolar carbon dioxide and oxygen tensions. Whether or not reducing the "dead space" is of clinical significance has not been determined, but no apparent deleterious effects are noted in intratracheal anesthesia. Increasing the "dead space" mechanically with large masks, excess tubing, et cetera, increases to a varying extent the alveolar carbon dioxide tension. In adults who are susceptible to slight carbon dioxide changes, this may

cause hyperpnea and increased blood pressure, two cardinal signs of carbon dioxide excess. In children the mask may increase the total dead space considerably since the pharynx and trachea are small and the space in the mask and connecting pieces can not be reduced in proportion. Further, children may be more susceptible to carbon dioxide increases, which frequently result in marked disturbances of respiration. It is sometimes impossible to eliminate this physiological disturbance and the closed system is frequently abandoned for the open methods of anesthesia in children. The ideal anesthesia from the standpoint of minimum "dead space" is obtained during insufflation techniques of anesthetic drugs with oxygen.

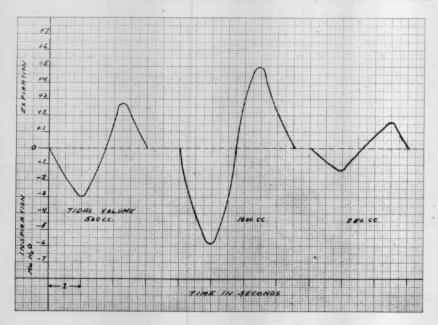


Figure V. The effect of respiratory tidal volume on resistance is represented in millimeters of water. These studies were done when the respiratory rate was 20 per minute, in a cylindrical 8×13 centimeter canister with a 4×8 mesh soda lime on a "to and fro" system. Resistance increases with increases in tidal volume. Under comparable conditions resistance would be considerably higher in a "circle filter."

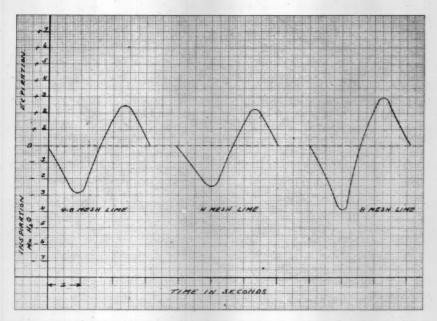


Figure VI. The effect upon resistance of varying the size of the soda lime granules is shown. The smaller sized soda limes offer more resistance than the large. These studies: were made with an 8×13 centimeter cylindrical canister on a "to and fro" system, using a tidal volume of 500 cc. and a respiratory rate of 20 per minute.

In using the "to and fro" canister, it has been mentioned elsewhere* that when the tidal volume of the patient is less than the air space in the canister, the soda lime in the front half of the canister is the first to become exhausted. When this is completely exhausted the soda lime in the back portion functions and the intergranular air space in the front of the canister then acts as a "d:ad space." This condition is most frequently seen during anesthesia in children when large canisters (8x13 centimeters) are used. The tidal volume in children is less than that of adults. To obtain the most efficient absorption and avoid the increasing "dead space" with progressive exhaustion of the front portions of soda lime, small canisters should be used (6x8 centimeters, or 7x12 for young adults). In the "circle filter" one is not faced with this problem since the pattern of absorption is different and small tidal volumes do not form "dead space."

The possibility of cross infection with anesthesia apparatus from an infected patient to another is not remote. This danger is almost completely eliminated if tubing, masks, and connecting pieces are cleaned between cases. This should offer no problem since they are readily detached and cleaned. The canister and its contents are not so easily cleaned and cannot be autoclaved because of the possibility of decreasing the absorptive power of the soda lime. However, experimentally and clinically

^{*} See May, 1941, issue of the Bulletin.

it has been found that there is no transmission of bacteria from the canisters heavily infected with colon, tuberculous, and other bacilli. The highly caustic nature of the soda lime and the heating during absorption possibly have a germicidal effect. One can, therefore, use a canister on successive cases without fear of transmitting infection should an unsuspected infection be present in a subject. One can never be over-cautious, and in the face of known infections the canister should be replaced or cleaned properly before it is used once more.

SUMMARY

Rebreathing is a feature of all inhalation anesthesia. It may be partial, as in the open and semi-open systems, or complete, as in the entirely closed systems. Accumulations of excess carbon dioxide are avoided by providing adequate avenues of escape in the open, semi-open, semi-closed or by absorption by chemical means in the totally closed systems. Adequate oxygen tension is maintained by supplying a flow of this gas of 250 cc. or more per minute. Resistance is minimized by providing wide apertures in the pathway of inspired and expired gases, proper sized and shaped canisters, proper grade of soda lime, new and soft valves, and short connecting tubing. Large masks and unnecessary connecting tubes increase the "dead space" and may result in increases of alveolar carbon dioxide tension with subsequent circulatory and respiratory disturbances.

The danger of cross infection is negligible if all movable parts are carefully cleaned with soap, water and alcohol, since bacteria are not transmitted from the canister containing soda lime.

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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON GASES

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National Bureau of Standards.

International Acetylene Association.

Practically all of the committee's activity during the past year has been in connection with the preparation of safety standards governing the Use of Combustible Anesthetics in Hospital Operating Rooms. More than ten years ago, the National Board of Fire Underwriters, perceiving the need of safeguards in this field invited the cooperation of the hospital authorities of the United States, the Surgeons General of the Army, Navy, Public Health Service and other interested parties in studying the problem and preparing the necessary safeguards. This was accomplished and since that time the National Board has continued to assist the hospitals of the country in meeting and solving the many problems of safety brought about by the rapid progress and developments in the field of anesthesia. The extensive use of the relatively new anesthetic, cyclopropane, has served to increase interest in the general problem and this, coupled with new thoughts and opinions developed through the use of the National Board's standards over a period of years, has indicated the need not only for a more or less complete revision, but also a re-study from the viewpoint of new technical data and new materials. At the request of the National Board, this project has been taken over by the N.F.P.A.; the Committee on Gases has been given the assignment and in turn the actual work of making the study and preparing the new standards, referred to a special conference committee.

Owing to the highly technical nature of this project it was important that the man chosen to head the conference committee be one who was thoroughly competent through technical ability and experience in dealing with the dangers of combustible anesthetics. It was indeed fortunate that such a man in the person of J. Warren Horton, Associate Professor of Biological Engineering at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, was available and willing to assume this difficult task.

Professor Horton for more than a year has been engaged in carrying on a comprehensive research into the many phases of the problems presented by the use of combustible anesthetics. This has been supplemented by investigations of

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actual occurrences of the kind demonstrating the need of safety standards. This committee is as follows:

Conference Committee on Operating Room Hazards

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HOWARD CARTER Section on Physical Therapy, American Medical Association.

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Professor of Fire Protection Engineering, Illinois Institute of Technology,
W. Jones,
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Chemist, Explosives Division, U. S. Bureau of Mines.

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RALPH M. TOVELL, M.D., Special Representative on Anesthetic Explosions, American Society of Anesthetists.

RALPH M. WATERS, M.D. Anesthetist, Wisconsin General Hospital.

TENTATIVE

RECOMMENDED SAFE PRACTICE FOR THE USE OF COMBUSTIBLE ANESTHETICS IN HOSPITAL OPERATING ROOMS

Section I

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the following recommended specifications for certain features of the construction and arrangements of operating rooms, delivery rooms, and other places for surgical treatment, and the performance, installation, maintenance and use of equipment therein is to reduce the hazard of electric shock from the electric power and lighting circuits and the hazard of igniting flammable mixtures of gases. Studies of these hazards by many investigators, over many years, lead to the conclusion that the greatest degree of safety possible with our present knowledge can be secured only by a coördinated treatment of all significant factors rather than by the application of individual and unrelated safeguards. In some cases certain of the suggestions here presented are effective, or even permissible, only when carried out in conjunction with other recommendations.

In preparing these safe practice recommendations it has been recognized that the behavior of materials and of mechanical agents can be relied upon with greater assurance than can the behavior of human beings. Consequently it has been the aim to follow a plan which will require the minimum of conscious human effort in its daily application. On the other hand it must be emphasized that the most adequate physical safeguards can not eliminate the necessity for continuous and intelligent vigilance but can only make such vigilance effective.

It must further be pointed out that all details of operating room arrangement or equipment are by no means covered by the specifications here presented, although they do cover the major factors contributing to the hazards of electric shock and of the ignition of flammable gases. There remain other details concerning which it appears unwise at the present time to formulate rigorous recommendations.

These recommendations outline in some detail ways and means for eliminating or correcting conditions which experience and investigation have shown to contribute to the hazards in question. In applying them it is necessary to understand fully the nature of these contributory conditions and their relations to the hazards. In any given situation intelligent judgment must be used in order to meet the particular conditions there existing most reasonably and effectively.

It is not the intention that these recommendations shall, in any way, supersede the accepted standards of the National Electric Code. All recommendations here presented which have to do with electrical equipment are in strict conformity with the November, 1940, edition of this Code. An attempt has been made to emphasize those standards which are of particular significance in connection with electrical wiring and equipment used in operating rooms and to present them in such form that they may be most useful to those concerned with this specific problem.

Section II NATURE OF HAZARDS

Combustible Gases

The use of the ether compounds or of the hydrocarbon gases as anesthetics is attended by considerable risk because of the fact that these agents form flammable mixtures with air, oxygen, or nitrous oxide. In many cases these mixtures are violently explosive. Fatal accidents have been of not infrequent occurrence.

The use of closed rebreathing systems for the administration of these anesthetic agents normally tends to restrict the region likely to be hazardous. To secure a reasonable measure of protection, however, it has been found necessary, with minor exceptions, to apply safeguards throughout any room in which these agents may be used. Definitions for hazardous locations are given in Section III.

The actual extent and duration of a hazardous condition resulting from any use of flammable anesthetic agents may, in practice, be reduced by suitable ventilation. Recommended specifications covering certain important details of such ventilation are given in Section IV.

Spontaneous Ignition

A possible method of ignition is by spontaneous oxidation. Under certain conditions, as when oxidizing and reducing gases are permitted to mix under high pressure, explosions due to this cause may be of terrific violence and are a serious hazard. Precautionary measures for reducing this hazard, as well as other precautions to be observed in the storing and handling of anesthetic gases, are suggested in Section V.

Electrical Systems

If a connection between two points of the electrical system which are at different electrical potentials includes the body of a person, he is likely to suffer an electric shock. If a connection between two points of the electrical system which are at different electrical potentials is made by metallic conductors, there is likely to be a spark or an arc or intense heating of one or more of the metallic conductors. In the majority of cases, situations presenting one of these hazards also present the other and safeguards against one are often effective against the other. There are, however, situations for which the safeguards are conflicting; hence, it is necessary to consider both hazards in recommending precautionary measures for either.

The most common hazardous electrical contacts are between the two sides of the low voltage distribution circuits. The potential difference in these cases

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is ordinarily 110 volts although it may, in some installations, be as high as 220 volts. A shock resulting from such contact is likely to be of sufficient severity to be extremely hazardous in an operating room. Less common hazardous contacts are between either side of the high voltage distribution circuits and some metallic object in contact with some other portion of the electrical power system. Present methods of installation make such contacts extremely unlikely. When they do occur, however, the potential differences encountered may be of sufficient magnitude to be exceptionally dangerous. Shocks from such contacts are generally fatal.

The conventional protection against both of these situations is to ground one side of the low voltage distribution system and to enclose the conductors within a grounded metallic sheath, or conduit. The current-carrying portions of all electrical equipment are likewise enclosed, as far as possible, within grounded metallic housings. In this way all exposed conducting portions of electrical equipment are maintained at ground potential. Consequently, simultaneous contacts with conducting bodies are likely, in most cases, to involve points at the same electrical potential. Should the ungrounded side of any grounded circuit come into contact with an exposed conductor, the ground connection of the latter would result in a short circuit and thus remove the potential from the line by opening the fuse or other overcurrent device. The possibility of shock is thus further reduced.

A short circuit resulting from contact between the ungrounded side of the electrical system and any grounded conductor, while reducing the shock hazard, introduces the possibility of a spark or arc and hence of the ignition of any flammable gases which may be present. To reduce this hazard without, at the same time, impairing the safeguards against electric shock, the use of an ungrounded branch distribution system, as specified in Section VI, is recommended. In this arrangement the protection against electric shock is as complete as in more conventional arrangements. In order for a short circuit to occur with this arrangement, however, it would be necessary for two defects, involving both sides of the circuit, to exist simultaneously in the electrical wiring or equipment. As a further safeguard a ground contact indicator is recommended which would give immediate warning of the existence of either of these two defects, thus making it possible to correct one before the occurrence of the other.

Other recommendations for the installation and maintenance of electrical equipment in hazardous locations and in places where electric shocks are particularly to be avoided are given in Section VI.

Electrostatic Spark Discharges

Statistics indicate that the ignition of flammable gases by electrostatic spark discharge is a hazard of approximately the same frequency of occurrence as ignition by the electrical system. Electrostatic charges can set up dangerous potential differences only in the presence of materials which are electrically non-conducting, i.e. insulators, which act as barriers to the free movement of such charges and hence prevent the equalization of potential differences. A spark discharge can take place only when there is no other path of greater conductivity available by which this equalization may be effected. A reduction of the hazard, therefore, may be accomplished by the proper selection, use, and maintenance of materials. The specifications recommended in Section VII cover points of major importance in this connection.

Inasmuch as these specifications recommend the effective grounding of persons and objects, there are situations in which they might result in an increased probability of hazardous contact with the electrical system. This possibility can and should be avoided by the thorough grounding of all protective metallic housings or enclosures of electrical circuits and equipment as recommended in Section VI.

It has been suggested that the electrical inter-connection of conductive bodies, such as is brought about by grounding, may increase the amount of energy liberated by any electrostatic spark discharge resulting from the presence of bodies not included by the interconnection. It is the purpose of the specifications recommended in Sections VI and VII to provide grounding, and hence interconnection, which is sufficiently effective to prevent completely the entrance of such bodies into hazardous locations.

Flames and Hot Bodies

A very obvious and, hence, less frequent cause of the ignition of flammable gases is by the open flame or hot body. The most effective safeguard against this source of ignition is a continuous consciousness on the part of the operating room personnel of the danger inherent in the use of flammable anesthetics.

Section III DEFINITIONS OF HAZARDOUS LOCATIONS

Hazardous Locations

A room in which any of the hydrocarbon anesthetic gases or any of the ether compounds are stored or used is to be considered a hazardous location. The hazardous condition may be considered as extending for a horizontal distance of 10 feet and to a height of 7 feet above the floor outside of any door opening into such a room.

An exception may be made in the case of a room ventilated as specified in Section IV; in such rooms the hazardous condition may be considered as extending to a height of 7 feet above the floor.

Locations of Limited Hazard

Any corridor or room through which a patient is moved during the progress of anesthesia, or through which anesthesia equipment is moved while in an operating condition, is to be considered a location of limited hazard. In such locations hazards due to permanently installed electrical equipment should be considered as being the same as for non-hazardous locations; hazards due to electrostatic charges should be considered as being the same as for hazardous locations.

Section IV VENTILATION

Method of Ventilation

All hazardous locations, as defined in Section III, should be ventilated by mechanical means. Air should be brought into the room by ducts opening not less than 6 feet from the floor and removed from the room by ducts opening not more than 3 feet from the floor.

Amount of Ventilation

There should be a change of air of not less than 20 cubic feet per person per minute, but in no case should there be less than 12 changes of air per hour.

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Arrangement of Equipment

The preferable location for the circulating fans or blowers is in the inlet ducts.* Regardless of location, fans should be of a type approved for use in explosive atmospheres. Motors should be of a type approved for use in explosive atmospheres and should be installed outside the ducts.

Temperature and Humidity

The temperature and humidity maintained in operating rooms should be chosen on the basis of the well being of patient and personnel. High humidity will reduce the hazard of electrostatic spark discharge under certain conditions but is not sufficiently reliable for their complete elimination.

Windows

Windows in hazardous locations should be kept closed.

Section V

STORAGE AND HANDLING OF GASES

The recommendations presented in this section are, in general, taken from previously published good practice requirements and safety codes. They have been modified, where necessary, to bring the several sources into agreement with each other and with other sections of these recommendations. They include and are in conformity with the recommended good practice requirements adopted by the National Fire Protection Association and by the National Board of Fire Underwriters and with the recommendations of the National Safety Council and of the American Hospital Association.

Specifications for Cylinders

All cylinders containing compressed gases, such as anesthetic gases, oxygen, or other gases used for medicinal purposes, whether these gases be flammable or not, should be in accordance with the regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission with respect to construction, testing, and fittings.

Marking of Cylinders

All cylinders containing compressed gases should be clearly marked with the gas contained therein.

All cylinders containing compressed gases should, in addition to showing the name of the gas, show conspicuously a color indicating the nature of the gas contained therein. Recommendations and regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission and of the National Bureau of Standards regarding suitable conventions for such color coding should be followed.

Storage of Containers

All cylinders containing compressed gases, and all cans containing volatile liquids should be stored in dry locations ventilated as recommended in Section IV. Under no circumstances should these cylinders be stored in the operating room. If stored in an adjoining room there should be a blank wall between such room and the operating room. In all cases the storage of compressed gases and of flammable liquids should be in strict accordance with the provisions of State law and of municipal ordinances.

^{*}Vapors in the inlet ducts are less likely to be flammable than those in the outlet ducts. The use of fans in the inlet ducts also maintains a positive pressure in the operating room thus tending to lessen air-borne infection brought in from corridors and other adjoining locations.

Location of Containers

Cylinders containing compressed gases, or cans containing volatile liquids should be kept away from radiators, steam pipes, and like sources of heat. Cylinders containing reducing gases, such as ethylene or cyclopropane, and cans containing flammable liquids, such as ether, should be kept out of proximity to cylinders containing oxidizing gases, such as oxygen or nitrous oxide. Flammable materials, such as wood and fabrics, should not be stored or kept near cylinders containing oxygen.

Coverings

Cylinders containing compressed gases, cans containing volatile liquids, and anesthetic administering equipment not in active use should never be covered with fabric or other covering at any time.

Special Care of Oxygen Cylinders

Great care must be exercised with cylinders containing compressed oxygen to prevent any accumulation of grease or oil on either the cylinder or any of the fittings attached thereto. Such cylinders and fittings should never be wiped or rubbed with any cloth, waste, or similar material likely to contain oil or grease.

Regulators and Valves

Suitable approved regulators or other gas flow control devices should be used in conjunction with any cylinder containing gas used for medicinal purposes.

Cylinder Connections

No equipment should be used for coupling cylinders containing compressed gases which might permit the inter-mixing of gases, either through defects in the mechanism or through error in manipulation, in any portion of the high pressure side of any system in which these gases may flow. It is particularly important that the inter-mixing of oxidizing and reducing gases under pressure be scrupulously avoided as such mixing inevitably results in spontaneous combustion and explosions of terrific violence.

Filling of Cylinders

Compressed gas should never be transferred from one storage cylinder to another on the hospital premises.

Piping Systems for Gases

Systems for the distribution of gases should, except as noted below, employ standard, full weight iron-pipe-size brass pipe with substantial brass fittings, or approved seamless drawn well annealed copper, brass, or other non-ferrous tubing with approved fittings, protected against mechanical injury in a manner satisfactory to the authorities having jurisdiction. In all piping systems proper allowance should be made for expansion and contraction, jarring, and vibration. Brass used for such piping should have a copper content of not less than 83 per cent. Long runs of piping should be avoided and cylinders should be located as close as feasible to points of consumption.

An exception may be made in the case of nitrous oxide, for the distribution of which iron or steel tubing may be used.

An exception should be made in the case of ethylene, for the distribution of which iron or steel tubing should be used.

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Where threaded joints or fittings are used, threads should be in accordance with the American Pipe Thread Standard. All joints should be sweated with solder.

Where anesthetic or other gases used for medicinal purposes are piped from building to building, pipes should perferably be placed in a separate tile duct used for no other purpose. If tunnels containing other piping are used for this purpose the anesthetic or other gases should be segregated in a special basket type metal duct for this use exclusively, having screened sides, top and bottom, and conspicuously labeled at frequent intervals "Dangerous Gases." Such tunnels should be well lighted and ventilated.

All piping should be tested and proven tight at one and one half times the maximum working pressure, but never at less than 100 pounds per square inch. Before being placed in service such piping should be thoroughly blown out to insure freedom from foreign materials.

Identification of Pipe Lines

All oxygen pipe lines should be painted one color, perferably green, and all anesthetic gas lines a different color. Where more than one anesthetic gas is piped, the lines distributing the different anesthetics should be painted distinctive colors.

A chart identifying the various gases according to colors employed should be prominently displayed.

Manifolding Anesthetic Cylinders to Headers

Headers should be constructed of double extra heavy piping, preferably brass or bronze, not exceeding one and one quarter inch nominal pipe size. Fittings in header, if used, should be extra heavy. Headers should be provided with shutoff valves at each point where a cylinder is to be connected.

Leads from header valves to cylinder valves should be constructed of steel tubing or an approved composition pipe, and should be capable of withstanding a pressure of 1000 pounds per square inch.

The discharge opening from the header should be equipped with an approved regulator.

Manifold systems should be capable of withstanding a test pressure of one and one half times the charging pressure.

A preferred arrangement from the safety standpoint is to so set the manifold regulators that when one side of the manifold is exhausted, the other side will automatically function.

A method which eliminates the need of a header and which has been successfully used in practice, is to connect two cylinders to the piping system and so set the regulator of the second cylinder that when the first is empty, the second cylinder will automatically come into service.

Oxygen Manifolds

Oxygen manifolds or headers should be constructed of bronze of such weight as to insure suitability for the purpose. All sections of the header should be freed of foreign material and combustible matter before assembly.

Fittings for header should be substantial design and may be threaded and soldered to header or threaded using litharge and glycerine only.

The leads or connections attaching cylinders to header should be constructed of annealed brass, bronze or copper, of suitable strength.

High pressure headers, fittings and leads should be capable of withstanding a pressure of 3600 pounds per square inch.

Headers, fittings and leads after assembly should be washed out with carbon tetrachloride or other suitable grease solvent and blown out by low pressure oxygen.

It is recommended that oxygen headers or manifolds be purchased from, and installed by, reliable manufacturers familiar with the proper shop practice with reference to their construction and installation.

Emergency Shut-off Valves

In addition to the shut-off valves within the operating room, a shut-off valve should be provided cutside thereof in each flammable gas and oxygen line, so located as to be accessible at all times for use in an emergency. These valves should be so arranged that shutting off the supply of gas to any one operating room will not affect the others. Valves should be of approved type and mounted on a pedestal or otherwise properly safeguarded against mechanical injury.

General Precautions

As defined in Section III, places where compressed flammable gases or flammable liquids are stored are considered as hazardous locations. The recommendations covering electrical wiring in hazardous locations and recommendations for the reduction of the electrostatic hazard should, therefore, be rigorously observed.

Section VI

ELECTRICAL WIRING AND EQUIPMENT

Recommendations for electrical wiring and equipment to be used in operating rooms, delivery rooms, and similar places are given in this section.

In hazardous locations, as defined in Section III, all installations and equipment should be in conformity with the standards for Class I, Group C, locations given in Chapter 5, Article 500, of the National Electrical Code as published under date of November, 1940.

In locations of limited hazard, as defined in Section III, permanent wiring and equipment should conform to the standards of the Code applying to non-hazardous locations. Portable electrical equipment and appliances, unless of a type suitable for use in hazardous locations, should be excluded from locations of limited hazard during their occupancy by patients or by anesthesia equipment in an operating condition.

In non-hazardous locations all electrical wiring and equipment should conform to the standards of the Code applying to such locations.

Arrangement of Circuits

In hazardous locations all electrical circuits should be fed by an insulating transformer which isolates them electrically from the main feeder and from other circuits in the building. This transformer should be of the dry type and should be installed outside the hazardous location. It may be considered as a special form of branch feeder. The primary winding should be connected to the main feeder, in the same manner, and with the same control and protective devices, as any other branch feeder of the electrical installation. One side of the primary circuit should be grounded in an approved manner and the other side provided with an approved overcurrent device located outside the hazardous location. The

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primary winding should never be connected directly to a high voltage circuit. Both sides of the secondary circuit should be ungrounded and an approved over-current device should be provided in each side of every branch circuit connected thereto. Voltages across the ungrounded circuits should not exceed 115 volts.

In addition to the usual control and protective devices the ungrounded system should be provided with ground contact indicator arranged as follows: A resistance of not less than 10,000 ohms should be connected across the secondary circuit of the transformer. A relay, installed outside the hazardous location, should be connected with its winding between the mid-point of this resistance and ground. The relay should operate when either side of the secondary circuit is connected to ground.* A signal lamp showing a green color, installed in some conspicuous location, should be connected to the back contact of the relay so that it shall be lighted when no current flows through the relay winding. A signal lamp showing a red color, installed adjacent to the green lamp, should be connected to the front contact of the relay so that it shall be lighted when current flows through the relay winding. Warning is thus given of any connection between either side of the secondary circuit and ground and, hence, of any hazardous defect in any wiring or equipment connected thereto.

Service Equipment

All service equipment, switchboards, or panelboards should be installed in a non-hazardous location.

Overcurrent Devices

All overcurrent and other protective devices should be installed in a nonhazardous location.

Wiring Method

In any location, the exposed non-current metal parts of equipment such as in a rigid conduit which is grounded in an approved manner. All wiring should be installed as specified in Section 5014 of the National Electrical Code.

Grounding

In any location, the exposed non-current metal parts of equipment such as the frames or metal exteriors of motors, fixed or portable lamps or appliances, fixtures, cabinets, cases, and conduit should be grounded as provided in Article 250 of the National Electrical Code. The locknut-bushing, and the double locknut types of contact should not be depended upon for bonding purposes, but bonding jumpers with proper fittings or other approved means should be used. All grounding should be installed as specified in Section 5025 of the National Electrical Code.

Lighting Fixtures

In hazardous locations in accordance with the standards of the National Electrical Code, Section 5020, lamps in fixed positions shall be enclosed in a manner approved for use in explosive atmospheres, and shall be properly protected by substantial metal guards or other means where exposed to breakage. Lamps shall not be of the pendent type unless supported by and supplied through hangers of rigid conduit or flexible connectors approved for use in explosive atmospheres. If

^{*} For a given value of resistance across the secondary circuit the relay will receive maximum power when the resistance of its winding is equal to ¼ of this value. The voltage across the relay winding in this case will be ¼ of that across the secondary circuit.

rubber covered conductors are used they shall have insulation not less than 3/64 inch thick. Rigidly mounted fixtures shall be strongly supported.

Exceptions may be made, as follows, provided the room ventilation fully meets the specifications of Section IV:

- (a) In the case of permanently mounted lamps, either fixed or adjustable, which are so constructed and so located that no part may be brought within 7 feet of the floor.
- (b) In the case of lamps mounted in or behind the walls in housings ventilated independently of the atmosphere of the room and from which this atmosphere is excluded by substantial vapor-tight glass windows, no portion of which is within five feet of the floor, approximately flush with the wall.

Lighting Switches

In hazardous locations, in accordance with the standards of the National Electrical Code, Section 5019, switches controlling lighting circuits shall be of a type approved for use in explosive atmospheres.

Such switches should be of the double-pole type and should open both sides of the ungrounded circuits which they control. Attention is called to the fact that mercury-type switches, although producing no exposed spark on operation, when in normal condition, are not approved by the Underwriters' Laboratories for use in explosive atmospheres unless enclosed in explosion-proof housings.

Receptacles and Attachment Plugs

In hazardous locations, in accordance with the standard of the National Electrical Code, Section 5023, receptacle and attachment plugs shall be so connected, as part of a unit device with an explosion-proof interlocking switch, that the plug cannot be removed while the switch is in the "on" position, or approved devices in which the circuit is broken in an explosion-proof enclosure shall be used. Such receptacles and plugs shall be of the polarized type which provides a connection for the grounding conductor of the portable cord.

Flexible Cord

In hazardous locations, in accordance with the standards of the National Electrical Code, Section 5022, flexible cord for portable lamps or portable electrical appliances shall be of a type designated for hard usage, such as Type S. Such flexible cord shall contain one extra insulated conductor to form a grounding connection for metal lamp guards, motor frames, and all other exposed metal portions of portable lamps and appliances. The outer covering of this grounding conductor shall be finished to show a green color. Portable cords connected directly to supply conductors shall be securely supported so that the probability of a break in the conductors at this point shall be minimized.

Portable Lamps

In hazardous locations, in accordance with the standards of the National Electrical Code, Section 5021, portable lamps shall be enclosed in a manner approved for explosive atmospheres and shall be protected against breakage by approved types of guards. Lamp holders for such portable lamps shall be of moulded composition or other approved material and of the keyless type with no exposed metal parts. Portable lamps in hazardous locations should not be equipped with switches. Current should be turned on or off at an explosion-proof outlet receptacle.

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Motors

In hazardous locations, in accordance with the standards of the National Electrical Code, Section 5016, motors and generators shall be of a type approved for use in explosive atmospheres.

Belting

In any location, all belting used in connection with rotating machinery should have incorporated in it sufficient conductive material to prevent the development of electrostatic charges.

Control Devices

In hazardous locations, in accordance with the standards of the National Electrical Code, Section 5017, devices or apparatus, such as motor controllers, thermal cut-outs, switches, relays, the switches and contactors of auto-transformer starters, resistance and impedance devices, which tend to create arcs, sparks, or high temperatures, shall not be installed unless such devices or apparatus are of a type approved for use in explosive atmospheres.

It is recommended that such devices be installed in a non-hazardous location and actuated by some suitable mechanical hydraulic, or other non-electrical remote control device which may be operated from any desired location. This applies particularly to foot and other switches which must be operated from a location at or near the floor.

Suction and Pressure Equipment

In any location suction apparatus should be of the aspirator type, driven either by compressed air or by water jet. Where necessary to use motors for driving the pumps of suction, pressure, or insufflation equipment, whether of the unit type or of a type having a common pump installed outside a hazardous location, they should be of a type approved for use in explosive atmospheres. The pumping equipment and any non-electrical auxiliaries should be of a type approved for use with explosive vapors.

With all suction apparatus, means should be provided for liberating the exhaust gases in a location where they shall be effectively dispersed without coming in contact with a possible source of ignition.

Low Voltage Circuits

In any location, all electrical apparatus or equipment having exposed current-carrying elements, or which is frequently in contact with the bodies of persons, should be of a type operating on a voltage of not over 6 volts. Power may be supplied to such apparatus or equipment from individual transformers connected to an outlet receptacle by means of a plug and cord of types approved for use in explosive atmospheres or by a common transformer installed in a non-hazardous location. Transformers for supplying low voltage circuits should have approved means for insulating the secondary circuit from the primary circuit and should have cores and cases grounded in an approved manner.

Power may also be supplied to low voltage circuits from individual batteries made up of dry cells or from common batteries made up of storage cells in a non-hazardous location.

Any receptacle or attachment plug used on low voltage circuits should be of a type which does not permit interchangeable connection with circuits of higher voltage. Exposed non-current-carrying metal parts of electrical equipment or apparatus operating on voltages of 6 volts or less should not be grounded.

Cautery Equipment

Cautery equipment, either of the life wire or of the radio-frequency type, should be used only in non-hazardous locations. All hot-wire cautery apparatus should be operated on voltages of 6 volts or less.

Illuminating Instruments

In any location, all instruments for providing electrical illumination which are brought into close contact with the bodies of persons, such as endoscopic instruments, head lamps, and the like, should be operated at voltages of 6 volts or less. Switches and control devices for such instruments should be operated at a distance of at least 3 feet from any portion of any system containing mixtures of explosive gases.

Diathermy and X-Ray Equipment

Diathermy and X-ray equipment should be provided with an approved form of grounded electrostatic shield. All switches and control devices for diathermy and X-ray equipment should be operated outside the hazardous location.

Signaling Systems

In hazardous locations, in accordance with the standards of the National Electrical Code; Section 5027, all equipment of signaling and communication systems, irrespective of voltage, shall be of a type approved for use in explosive atmospheres. All wiring for such systems shall be installed in accordance with Section 5014 of the Code.

Section VII

REDUCTION OF ELECTROSTATIC HAZARD

The recommendations of this section, which have been formulated for the purpose of reducing the possibility of electrostatic spark discharges and, hence, of the ignition of flammable gases by the energy liberated thereby, should be followed in all hazardous locations and in all locations of limited hazard.

Flooring

Flooring should be so constructed as to provide an electrically conductive path between any body making electrical contact with it and the building ground. An electrode for testing the performance of such floor should exert a pressure of 5 pounds uniformly over a circular area of surface 2 inches in diameter. With resilient flooring this electrode should be a cylinder of brass; with hard surface flooring it should be a disk of soft metal foil backed by a disk of resilient material of such character as to assure intimate contact with the floor. The resistance between the electrode and the building ground may be measured by a direct reading ohmmeter. The resistance between the electrode and ground, for any position of the electrode on the flooring surface, should be not more than 10,000 ohms.

Furniture

All furniture should be constructed of metal or of other electrically conductive material. Surfaces on which movable objects may be placed should be without paint, lacquer, or other insulating finish. All rubber used for casters, tires, or leg tips, or for surface finishing, should be of the conductive type or of equivalent material. The resistance between the metallic frame of any piece of furniture, or any metallic object placed thereon, and a metallic plate placed under

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any one supporting member, but insulated from the floor, should be not more than 10.000 ohms.

All furniture should be equipped with non-metallic leg tips or casters.

Mattresses and Pads

The coverings of all operating tables and stretcher pads and of all pillows, cushions, and the like, should be fabricated from sheeting of conductive rubber or equivalent material. Such conductive material should have a surface conductivity of not less than 10 micromhos per square centimeter and a longitudinal resistivity of not more than 10,000 ohms per centimeter square.*

Waterproof Sheeting

All waterproof sheeting, such as rubber sheeting, should be made of conductive rubber or similar material. Such conductive material should have a surface conductivity of not less than 10 micromhos per square centimeter and a longitudinal resistivity of not more than 10,000 ohms per centimeter square.

Rubber Tubing and Parts

All rubber or equivalent parts of operating room equipment, such as the masks, breathing tubes, breathing bags, and gaskets of anesthesia equipment, and all suction and pressure tubing not confined within a metallic sheathing, should be of conductive rubber or equivalent material. Such conductive material should have a surface conductivity of not less than 19 micromhos per square centimeter and an internal resistivity of not more than 10,000 ohms per centimeter cube.

Shoes

All shoes should have soles of conductive rubber, conductive leather, or equivalent material. They should be so fabricated that the resistance between a metal electrode placed inside the shoe and making contact with the inner sole, equivalent in pressure and area to normal contact with the foot, and a metal plate making contact with the bottom of the outer sole, equivalent in pressure and area to normal contact with the floor, shall be not more than 100,000 ohms.

All shoes should be tested on the wearer at least once on each day on which they may be worn in a hazardous location. Such test may be made by a direct reading ohmmeter, or similar approved instrument, indicating the resistance between two insulated electrodes so located that the wearer may stand in a normal manner with one foot on each electrode. The electrodes may be of some non-oxidizing metal such as stainless steel, or of conductive rubber or equivalent material for which the resistance between a metal electrode, exerting a pressure of 5 pounds uniformly over a circular area of surface 2 inches in diameter, and the terminal for connection to the indicating instrument is not more than 500 ohms. Shoes for which the indicated resistance between electrodes is 1 megohm, or less, are considered safe. Shoes for which this indicated resistance is greater than 1 megohm, but less than 4 megohms, are considered as marginal. Shoes for which the indicated resistance is greater than 4 megohms are considered unsafe.*

Shoes having nails which may contact with the floor should not be permitted in hazardous locations.

^{*} See Appendix.

^{*}These limits correspond to resistances of 250,000 ohms and 1 megohm, respectively, between the body of the wearer and ground, when standing with both feet in contact with a conductive flooring.

Wool

Blankets, sheets, covers, or outer garments of wool, or containing wool, should be excluded from all hazardous locations and from all locations of limited hazard.

Silk and Synthetic Textiles

Fabrics of silk or of synthetic textile materials such as rayon, including "sharkskin," should never be permitted in hazardous locations, or in locations of limited hazard, as outer garments or for any other purpose except hosiery or undergarments.

Plastics

Parts of hard rubber, bakelite, or any plastic material which is a non-conductor of electricity, should not be used on any equipment or instrument except where necessary as an electrical insulator on an approved device.

Cover for Anesthesia Equipment

Cover of fabric or of any form of sheeting should never be used on anesthesia equipment.

Intercoupling

In hazardous locations and in locations of limited hazard where the electrical characteristics of the floor do not meet the specifications of this section, or where persons and objects are not in electrical contact with a common conductive medium, some other suitable means should be provided for the intercoupling of those persons and objects most likely to be in the region adjoining the anesthesia machine. In situations where the electrical wiring and equipment meet the specifications of Section VI, this intercoupling may be obtained by direct inter-connection, using suitable leads having bracelets or clamps for connecting to persons or objects. Should the electrical installation not meet these specifications, some approved form of high resistance intercoupling should be used. This should be so arranged as to maintain a conductive path between any two bodies of the intercoupled group, or between any one body of this group and ground, the resistance of which is not less than 200,000 ohms nor more than 1,000,000. Any intercoupled system should include the patient, the anesthetist, the operating table, and the anesthesia machine.

Appendix

ELECTRICAL PROPERTIES OF CONDUCTIVE RUBBER

The electrical properties of conductive rubber can not be expressed completely in terms of the specific resistance alone. Determinations based on the measured resistance, R, of a homogeneous sample of the rubber placed between metallic electrodes, when substituted into the equation for the specified resistance

$$p = R \frac{A}{1} \tag{1}$$

give results which vary between very wide limits for different values of the cross-sectional area, A, perpendicular to the lines of current flow, and of the length, 1, of the conductive path parallel to the lines of current flow. From the nature of the relation between the observed results and the magnitudes of A and of 1, it appears that there is a resistance of considerable magnitude at the boundary between the metallic electrode and the conductive rubber. That such a high con-

tact resistance does, indeed, exist may be verified by simple experiments. It becomes essential, therefore, in order to describe or to specify adequately the performance of conductive rubber, to be able to evaluate separately both this contact resistance and the internal, or inherent, resistivity of the material.

The internal resistivity may be determined directly by conventional methods. A known current, sent through a sample of the conductive rubber between current electrodes making contact with its surface at the ends of a strip having uniform cross section perpendicular to the lines of current flow, causes a potential drop along a given length which is proportional to the internal resistance of that length of the sample. This potential drop may be measured by electrodes placed on the surface between the current electrodes and making contact along lines at right angles to the lines of current flow. The arrangement of the circuits for this measurement are shown in Figure 1. By using a potentiometer, which, at the balance point, permits no current to flow through the potential electrodes, the existence of any contact resistance between these electrodes and the material is without effect on the determination. The ratio of the measured potential drop to the known current is, in this case, the true internal resistance of the length of the sample between the potential electrodes. The internal resistivity, p, in ohms per unit cube, is then obtained by multiplying the resistance thus computed by the ratio of the cross-sectional area, A, of the sample at right angles to the lines of current flow to the length, 1, of the sample between the potential electrodes, as in equation (1).

Unfortunately no such simple method is available for the determination of the contact resistance. If we were justified in assuming that the internal resistance were independent of the orientation of the material we might compute the contact resistance for both faces as the difference between the total resistance between electrodes placed on opposite faces and the internal resistance of the material between these faces. This would involve determining the internal resistivity for a rectangular parallelepiped of the material by the method just described and then measuring the total resistance between electrodes placed on opposite faces. The lines of current flow in these two cases are, however, at right angles to each other and there is no assurance that the internal resistivity determined for one case is correct for the other.

The contact resistance can, however, be determined indirectly from measurements made with a single arrangement of four electrodes on a homogeneous sample of the material having the form of a rectangular parallelepiped. Let a current electrode be placed in contact with one surface of this rectangular parallelepiped at one end, covering the surface for a distance d from the end. Let the inner edge of the electrode make contact with the surface along a line perpendicular to the lines of current flow as current passes from this electrode to a similar electrode similarly placed at the other end of the sample. Both electrodes should be in contact with one surface of the test piece, as shown in Fig. 1, and the lines of current flow in the main body of the material should be parallel to this surface. The resistance between one metallic electrode and a plane through its inner edge, perpendicular to the lines of current flow, depends both on the contact resistance between the electrode and the conductive material and on the internal resistance of the material. This follows from the fact that current entering the sample at a distance from the inner edge of the electrode must pass first through the contact resistance of a narrow strip parallel to the edge and then through the internal resistance of the length between this strip and the edge. The whole

sample may, in fact, be considered as an electrical network, as shown in Fig. 2, made up of many very small current paths, the resistance of some being due to the contact effect at the surface and of others to the internal resistance of the material. This contact resistance may be expressed as g, the surface conductance in mhos per unit length of sample parallel to the line of current flow. This internal resistance may be expressed as r, the resistance in ohms per unit length of sample parallel to the lines of current flow. This latter value may be determined as previously described.

The effective resistance between the electrodes and planes through their inner edges may be determined by measuring the total resistance between the two electrodes and subtracting the resistance due to that portion of the sample included between the planes. The total resistance, Rr, between the electrodes may be determined, by means of the circuits shown in Fig. 1, by transferring the con-

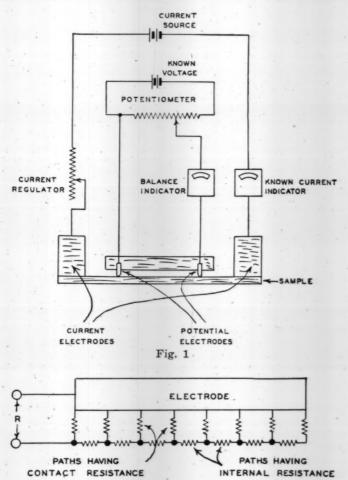


Fig. 2

AUGUST 1941

nections of the potentiometer to the current electrodes and measuring the total potential drop in the same manner as that used for determining the internal resistance. The resistance of the material between the two inner edges of the electrodes and parallel to the lines of current flow may be computed as the product of the resistance per unit length, r, and the distance, D, between these inner edges. The resistance, R, under a single electrode may be considered as being ½ of the electrode resistance. In other words,

$$R = \frac{R_T - rD}{2}$$
 (2)

We, therefore, have a value for R, the resistance between one electrode and the plane through its inner edge, and a value for r, the internal resistance per unit length of the sample. The problem now is to determine the value of g, the surface conductance per unit length.

It is difficult to express g explicitly in terms of the two known resistance values. It is possible, however, to compute values of the ratio R/r for a number of assumed values of the product rg, taking into account the length of the particular electrode used in the measurements, measured parallel to the lines of current flow. These values may be plotted against each other, preferably on logarithmic graph paper. We may, therefore, compute the ratio R/r from the available data, look up the corresponding value of rg on the chart, and divide the latter by the known value of r to obtain the desired value of g. From this we may obtain the surface conductivity G, in mhos per unit area, by dividing g by the width of the sample.

Representative values for the two quantities, R/r and rg, are given in Table I. In computing these values the length of the electrode parallel to the lines of current flow was assumed to be 2 cm.

In practice it has been found convenient to use a test piece 10 cm. long and 2 cm. wide cut from a sheet sample of the material. Grease and other foreign matter should be removed from the surface by wiping lightly with a cloth moistened with acetone. Suitable current electrodes may be made from blocks of brass 2 cm. wide and weighing 400 gm. each. Placed one on each end of the strip, they extend in for 2 cm., cover an area of 4 sq. cm. each, and exert a pressure of 100 gm. per sq. cm. The potential electrodes may be bars of brass 1/16 in. thick set parallel to each other in slots in a block of non-conductive material so that they are maintained at a fixed separation of 10 cm. The general arrangement of electrodes and sample is shown in Fig. 1. Accuracy in placing the electrodes may be insured by extending them over the sides of the sample and locating them by means of pins fixed in a non-conducting base.

The electrical connections are shown diagrammatically in Fig. 1. All readings of voltage magnitudes are made by means of a calibrated scale on the potentiometer.

For conductive materials in the form of thin sheeting, particularly when such sheeting is not homogeneous but contains a fabric or other non-conductive insert, the resistance effective to current flowing longitudinally through the sheeting, i.e., parallel to the surface, is particularly significant. This property may be evaluated most conveniently in terms of the resistance of a portion one centimeter long of a strip of the sheeting one centimeter wide. This may be termed the *longitudinal resistivity* of the material. Like the internal resistivity, it must be evaluated

independently of any surface contact effects. Its value may be obtained quantitatively by multiplying r by the width of the sample, in the same way that surface conductivity was obtained from g by dividing by the width. Although there is no conventional unit for this property, numerical values may be expressed in terms of ohm per centimeter square.

TABLE I.

* 1	Electrode len	gth = 2 cm.	
Values of	Values of	Values of	Values of
rg	R/r	rg	R/r
0.0006	833	0.40	1.86
0.0010	500	0.60	1.41
0.0015	334	1.0	1.04
0.0025	201	1.5	0.829
0.0040	125	2.5	0.634
0.0060	84.0	4.0	0.501
0.010	50.7	6.0	0.408
0.015	33.9	10	0.316
0.025	20.6	15	0.258
0.040	13.2	25	0.200
0.060	9.00	40	0.158
0.10	5.63	60	0.129
0.15	3.96	100	0.100
0.25	2.63		



ALABAMA ANESTHETISTS — APRIL, 1941

NINTH ANNUAL MEETING

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF NURSE ANESTHETISTS

September 15 to 19, 1941, inclusive

ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY

Held in conjunction with the American Hospital Association

HOTEL HEADQUARTERS: Ritz-Carlton

GENERAL SESSIONS: Held in Emily Denton Hall
Badge is entrance requirement

REGISTRATION: In Emily Denton Hall

Monday, September 15 through Thursday, Septem-

ber 18, 9:00 A.M. to 12:00 P.M. and 2:00 to

4:00 P.M.

Fee \$1.00

Members and guests are also asked to register with

the American Hospital Association

BANQUET: Tickets should be secured at Registration Desk as

soon as possible

EXHIBITS: Commercial and educational exhibits open daily

from 9 to 5.

TENTATIVE PROGRAM

Sunday, September 14

MEETING OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Ritz-Carlton Hotel

Monday, September 15
GENERAL SESSION

Emily Denton Hall

2:00-4:30 P.M.

Edwina M. Irons Presiding Protestant Episcopal Hospital, Philadelphia

Invocation

The Reverend Warren W. Way, Rector St. James Episcopal Church, Atlantic City

Address of Welcome

The Honorable Thomas D. Taggart, Jr. Mayor of Atlantic City

Greetings from the American Hospital Association Benjamin W. Black, M.D., President

Alameda County Institutions, Oakland, California

"Dental Anesthesia"

Victor H. Frank, D.D.S.

Departments Oral Surgery and Exodontia, Graduate Hospital University of Pennsylvania, and Mount Sinai Hospital, Philadelphia

"Facial Palsy"

Oscar V. Batson, M.D., M.A.

Professor of Anatomy, Graduate School of Medicine; University of Pennsylvania Hospital; Graduate Hospital; Protestant Episcopal Hospital and Philadelphia General Hospital

"Pentothal Sodium"

Paul Mecray, Jr., M.D., M.Sc. -

Assistant Surgeon, Cooper Hospital, Camden, N. J.; Visiting Surgeon, Camden County General Hospital, Lakeland, New Jersey

"Traumatic Surgery"

Harry Subin, M.D., F.A.C.S.

Assistant Surgeon and Assistant Orthopedic Surgeon, Atlantic City Hospital; Orthopedic Surgeon, Pine Rest Hospital for Tuberculous Diseases; Orthopedic Surgeon, Bacharach Home for Crippled Children, Atlantic City

Tuesday, September 16
BUSINESS SESSION
Emily Denton Hall

9:00 A.M.-12:00 P.M.

Helen Lamb, President, Presiding

Roll Call Reading of Minutes Reports—

> President Executive Secretary

Treasurer Historian

Standing Committees:

Membership
Revisions
Publishing
Legislative
Nominating
Educational
Curriculum
Finance
Trust Fund

Executive Special Committees:

Defense Program Public Relations Seal Helen Lamb Anna Willenborg Gertrude L. Fife Leone M. Myers

Lucy E. Richards
Verna M. Rice
Gertrude L. Fife
Miriam G. Shupp
Gertrude Troster
Agatha C. Hodgins
Rosalie C. McDonald
Gertrude L. Fife
Verna M. Rice
Helen Lamb

Miriam G. Shupp Miriam G. Shupp Louise Schwarting

GENERAL SESSION

Emily Denton Hall

2:00-4:30 P.M.

Alice Racette Presiding Ellis Hospital, Schenectady, N. Y.

"Vinethene Anesthesia"

Edward T. Crossan, M.D.

Chief Surgeon, Protestant Episcopal Hospital, Philadelphia

"Continuous Spinal Anesthesia"

William T. Lemmon, M.D.

Assistant Professor of Surgery, Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia; Surgeon, Philadelphia General Hospital

"The Art of Anesthesia"

Temple Fay, M.D.

Professor of Neurology and Neurosurgery, Temple University School of Medicine, Philadelphia

"Anesthesia in Thoracic Surgery"

V. Earl Johnson, M.D., F.A.C.S.

Chief, Department of Surgery, Atlantic City Hospital and Shore Memorial Hospital; Chief, Fracture Clinic, Atlantic City Hospital; Consulting Surgeon, Children's Seashore Home, Atlantic City

"Helium in Anesthesia"

Frances Hess, Director School of Anesthesia Long Island College Hospital, Brooklyn

BANQUET — RITZ-CARLTON HOTEL 7:00 P.M.

Invocation

The Reverend Richard F. Garnet, A.M., B.D.

St. Andrews by-the-Sea Evangelical Lutheran Church, Atlantic City
Introduction of Guests

Music Guest Speaker

Wednesday, September 17

INSTRUCTORS' SESSION

Emily Denton Hall

8:00-12:00 A.M.

Sister Rudolpha, O.S.F., Presiding Director, School of Anesthesia St. John's Hospital, Springfield, Illinois

GENERAL SESSION

Emily Denton Hall

2:00-4:30 P.M.

Nelle G. Vincent Presiding Evanston Hospital, Evanston, Illinois "Practical Demonstration of the Combustibility of Various Gases"

David B. Labowitz, Ph.G.

Medicinal Oxygen Company, Pittsburgh

"Helium-The Flame Quencher"

George J. Thomas, M.D., F.I.C.A.

Instructor of Anesthesia, School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh

Report of Survey Concerning Accidents Occurring During the Administration of Anesthetics by Nurse Anesthetists

Miriam G. Shupp

Strong Memorial Hospital, Rochester, N. Y.

"The Advantages and Disadvantages of Carbon Dioxide with Oxygen in General Anesthesia"

Edward W. Beach, M.D., F.I.C.A.

Assistant Professor of Anesthesia, Graduate School of Medicine; Chief, Department of Anesthesia, Graduate Hospital, Pennsylvania Hospital and Willis Hospital, Philadelphia

Movie — Current Practices in Operating Oxygen Therapy Equipment (courtesy of the Linde Air Products Company)

"Anesthesia in Obstetrics"

Leonard C. Hamblock, A.B., M.D., F.A.C.S.

Obstetrician and Gynecologist-in-Chief, Methodist Hospital, Philadelphia; former Consulting Gynecologist, Philadelphia Orthopedic Hospital

MEETING OF ADVISORY COUNCIL

Emily Denton Hall

4:30-6:00 P.M.

Miriam G. Shupp Presiding

Thursday, September 18

MEETING OF ADVISORY COUNCIL

(Continued)

Emily Denton Hall

8:00-9:45 A.M.

Miriam G. Shupp Presiding

GENERAL SESSION

Emily Denton Hall

9:45 A.M.-12:00 P.M.

Rose G. Donavan Presiding Mount Sinai Hospital, Philadelphia

Round Table

Reading of the Prize Winning Papers—
National Contest for Student Anesthetists

BUSINESS SESSION

2:00-4.30 P.M.

Helen Lamb, President, Presiding Unfinished Business Report of Tellers Introduction of New Officers

The Educational Committee requests that questions for discussion at the Instructors' Session be sent as soon as possible to Sister Rudolpha, St. John's Hospital, Springfield, Illinois.

OFFICIAL NOTICE

The members of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists are hereby notified that revisions and amendments of the By-Laws will be presented for consideration at the business session of the annual meeting, which will be held in Atlantic City, New Jersey, September 15-18, 1941.

> VERNA M. RICE Chairman Revisions Committee RUTH BOTSFORD MYRA BELLE QUARLES

The annual business meeting of the University Hospitals (Lakeside) School of Anesthesia Alumnae Association will be held in Atlantic City during the convention of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists. The time and place will be announced in the "Special Events Division" of the program of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF NURSE ANESTHETISTS

OFFICERS

1940-1941

President Helen Lamb

Barnes Hospital, St. Louis, Mo.

First Vice-President Rosalie C. McDonald

Emory University Hospital, Atlanta, Ga.

Second Vice-President Rose G. Donavan

Mount Sinai Hospital, Philadelphia, Pa.

Gertrude L. Fife

University Hospitals, Cleveland, Ohio

Leone Myers

Ravenswood Hospital, Chicago, Ill.

Trustees:

Treasurer

Historian

Helen Lamb, Chairman, Missouri Rosalie C. McDonald, Georgia Gertrude, L. Fife, Ohio Agatha C. Hodgins, Massachusetts

Miriam G. Shupp, New York Louise E. Schwarting, Iowa Lucy E. Richards, Ohio Hazel Blanchard, New York

ACTIVITIES OF STATE ORGANIZATIONS

ALABAMA

The Alabama anesthetists held their annual meeting the evening of April 2, 1941, in the Assembly Hall at St. Vincent's Hospital, Birmingham, with Frances Bishop, President, presiding. Twenty-three members and guests were present.

The annual reports showed a definite increase in membership and interest. At the banquet following the business meeting Dr. S. L. Ledbetter, Jr., spoke on "The History of Anesthesia" and the rôle played by nurse anesthetists.

Officers Elected:

President

Hattie M. Barnes

South Highlands Infirmary, Birmingham

Vice-President

Ruth Hyde

St. Vincent's Hospital, Birming-ham

Secretary

Evelyn Prock Rushing

2930 Clairmont Ave., Birmingham

Treasurer

Stephanie Foto

St. Vincent's Hospital, Birming-ham

Trustees

Hattie M. Barnes

Anne M. Beddow

Alma Clyde Foust

Ruth Hyde

Evelyn Prock Rushing



HATTIE M. BARNES President

GEORGIA

During the past year monthly meetings of the Georgia anesthetists (except during the summer) have been held in Atlanta, and lectures were given as follows:

"Atelectasis"

F. P. Parker, M.D., Associate Professor of Pathology, Emory University

"Blood Studies during Anesthesia in Infected and Non-infected Cases"

J. D. Martin, M.D., Associate Professor of Clinical Surgery, Emory University

"Anoxia"

H. Haldi, M.D., Associate Professor of Physiology, Emory University "Electrocardiography"

G. Bachman, M.D., Professor of Physiology, Emory University

"Sodium Pentothal Anesthesia" Fred Rudder, M.D., Atlanta

a real and		
Treasurer's Report		
Cash on hand April 1, 1940	\$ 38.65	
Receipts		
Proceeds from: turkey raffles \$ 93.03		
rummage sales 27.08		
Contributions from members 7.00	127.11	
Dues	245.00	
Initiation fees	6.00	
		\$416.76
Disbursements		
Dues to American Association	\$165.75	
Initiation fees	6.00	
Remittance to Southeastern Assembly	36.62	
Office Expenses	28.46	
Delegate to Southeastern Assembly	10.00	\$246.83
Cash on hand April 15, 1941		\$169.93
Secretary's Report		
Members in good standing	38	
Delinquent members	4	
Members transferred to Georgia Association	3	
Members transferred from Georgia Association	6	

The President of the Georgia Association, Miss Caroline Hohenschutz, of St. Joseph's Infirmary, Atlanta, was chosen as a delegate to the annual meeting of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists, to be held in September in Atlantic City.

ILLINOIS

At the annual meeting of the Illinois Association, held in conjunction with the Tri-State Hospital Assembly in Chicago, May 7-8, 1941, the following officers were elected for the year 1941-1942:

President	Nelle G. Vincent
	Evanston Hospital, Evanston
First Vice-President	Gladys H. Hoffman
	Englewood Hospital, Chicago
Second Vice-President	Ann Priester
	West Suburban Hospital, Oak Park
Secretary	Marjorie R. Baker
	St. Joseph's Hospital, Chicago
Treasurer	Exire O'Day
	Ravenswood Hospital, Chicago
Historian	Edith H. Holmes
	1044 N. Francisco Ave., Chicago
Trustees	Jean Roth
	Mae B. Cameron
	Sister Borromea

INDIANA

The fifth annual meeting of the Indiana Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, on May 7, 1941, in conjunction with the Tri-State Hospital Assembly. It was decided to send two delegates to the annual convention of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists in September.

Officers Elected:

President

Ruth Hagen Hane 709 Kinnaird Ave., Fort Wayne

Vice-President

Helen M. Reitz

319 W. Louisiana St., Evansville

Secretary-Treasurer

Agnes M. Lange

326 Arcadia Court, Fort Wayne

Trustee (3-year)

Thelma A. Deane



RUTH HAGEN HANE President

KANSAS

The Kansas Association of Nurse Anesthetists held a short meeting at the President Hotel, Kansas City, Missouri, April 24, 1941, with Viola H. Baker, president, presiding. It was voted to hold the annual meeting in conjunction with the Midwest Anesthetists' Assembly.

The Kansas Association is making an effort to contact all anesthetists in Kansas in order to obtain a larger membership. The anesthetists at Wesley Hospital, Wichita, Kansas, are raising funds for the Association by selling empty ether cans. May we have other suggestions for making money?

MASSACHUSETTS

The last meeting of the fiscal year of the Massachusetts Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held on May 24, in the French Room of the Ritz-Carlton Hotel, Boston, with fourteen present.

It was voted to defray a portion of the expenses of Miss Gladys McCracken, of Massachusetts General Hospital, as a delegate to the annual convention of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists. Tea was poured by Miss Gertrude Gerrard of Peter Bent Brigham Hospital.

The Massachusetts Association will hold its annual meeting the first week of September, in Worcester. For further information write Miss Betty E. Lank, Secretary-Treasurer, 300 Long Avenue, Boston.

MICHIGAN

Officers elected at Michigan meeting, held in Chicago May 7-8, 1941:

President

Lillian G. Baird University of Michigan Hospital, Ann Arbor

First Vice-President

Kay Sheehan

St. Joseph's Mercy Hospital, Pon-

Second Vice-President

A. Maude Galbraith

Butterworth Hosp., Grand Rapids

Secretary-Treasurer

Ione Wessinger

Ford Hospital, Detroit

Historian

Ora Mae Hartley Beyer Hospital, Ypsilanti

Trustees:

Esther R. Mason Mable Courtney E. Louise Ilgenfritz Ora Mae Hartley Esther J. Meil



LILLIAN G. BAIRD President

MINNESOTA

Sponsored by the Minnesota Association, a showing was given on April 4 of Dr. Vernon D. E. Smith's technicolor moving pictures of big game hunting in Canada and Alaska. The members sold tickets at 25¢ each; a write-up appeared in the Twin City newspapers; and the Hennepin County Medical Society donated the use of the Medical Arts Auditorium in Mnineapolis for the event. The net receipts of \$58.85 will be used toward convention expenses.

At the regular April meeting of the Minnesota Association Dr. Ormond Culp of Ancker Hospital, St. Paul, spoke on "Pulmonary Embolism in Genito-Urinary Surgery." Dr. Vincent Swanson of the University Hospital, Minneapolis, gave a talk on "Spinal Anesthesia."

The seventh annual meeting of the Minnesota Association, held in St. Paul on May 23, 1941, drew an attendance of approximately fifty members and guests.

Palma A. Anderson and Hazel Peterson, of Minneapolis, were chosen to represent the Minnesota group at the annual meeting of the American Association in Atlantic City.

Treasurer's Report

Receipts

Dues	\$474.00	
Proceeds — card party	39.00	
Proceeds — movie		\$585.25

Disbursements

Dues to American Association\$321.5	0
Expenses two delegates, \$50 each 100.0	
Magazine subscription 10.0	0
Subscription to "Anesthesiology" 6.0	0
Gifts for Drs. Knight and Lundy 20.0	0
Printing, miscellaneous 38.6	5
Printing, tickets for movie 2.5	0
Expenses, card party 8.9	8 -
Operation of movie machine 8.0	0
Postage 10.0	0
Miscellaneous 6.7	8 532.41
lance on hand April 1, 1941	\$ 52.84

J. MARIE GRONVOLD, Treasurer

Officers Elected:

President

Bal

Palma A. Anderson

Deaconess Hospital, Minneapolis

Vice-President

Katherine Jurgenson

Swedish Hospital, Minneapolis

Secretary

Hazel Peterson

Fairview Hospital, Minneapolis

Treasurer

Elizabeth Gaertner

St. Mary's Hospital, Minneapolis

Trustees:

Ruth Walthers

Ruth Bergman

PALMA A. ANDERSON President



MISSOURI

Miss Alice Gronewald, 416 South Kingshighway, St. Louis, has been appointed Secretary-Treasurer of the Missouri Association.

NEBRASKA

Mrs. Wilhelmina Gulotta, President of the Nebraska Association, represented that group at the meeting of the Mid-West Assembly of Nurse Anesthetists held in Kansas City, on April 24-25, 1941. The present officers of the Nebraska Association are as follows:

President

Wilhelmina S. Gulotta

1734 South 17th Street, Lincoln

Vice-President

Ruby Christensen

Bryan Memorial Hospital, Lincoln

Historian

Wilhelmina Gulotta

Secretary-Treasurer

Pauline Young

Bryan Memorial Hospital, Lincoln

Trustees

Ruth Owens Marie Woodgate Josephine Kramer Sister Ursula Agnes Hain

> WILHELMINA S. GULOTTA President



NEW JERSEY

The second annual meeting of the New Jersey Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held at the Berkeley-Carteret Hotel, Asbury Park, on May 14, 1941, with twenty-five members in attendance.

Mrs. Florence Hale, of St. Peter Hospital, New Brunswick, presided, and the address of welcome was given by the President, Mrs. Della Mifflin, of Cooper Hospital, Camden. Mr. John Eckhart, American Red Cross Field Director, Fort Monmouth, New Jersey, was the guest speaker.

The following papers were read:

"Relations between the Patient, Surgeon and Anesthetist"

Laura D. Bryant, Cooper Hospital, Camden

"Anesthesia from the Viewpoint of the Obstetrician"

Frank Hughes, M.D., Cooper Hospital, Camden

"Convulsions in Anesthesia"

Bebe Horwitt, St. Peter Hospital, New Brunswick

Officers:

Secretary

President Della L. Mifflin

Cooper Hospital, Camden

Vice-Presidents Florence Hale

St. Peter Hospital, New Brunswick

Helen F. White

Beth Israel Hospital, Newark

Frances M. Waters

Cooper Hospital, Camden

Treasurer Bebe Horwitt

St. Peter Hospital, New Brunswick

Historian Martha K. Glenn
212 Baldwin St., New Brunswick, N. J.

Trustees:
1941-1945 Dorothy C. Ball
1940-1944 Martha Lowery
1940-1943 Leona Dangler Woram
1940-1942 Nathalie Hill

NEW YORK

The eighth annual meeting of the New York State Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held in New York City, May 21-23, 1941. An outstanding program was presented, which was published in full in the May issue of the Bulletin. Sixty-nine members and sixty-seven guests were registered, including anesthetists from Connecticut, Maryland, New Jersey, North Carolina, Missouri, Ohio and West Virginia.

The evening session, a new innovation this year, was a definite success, and as a result evening sessions will be included in the 1942 program.

Margaret Recker, 186 Washington Avenue, Brooklyn, was the winner in the drawing from the sale of tickets. The total sum realized was \$158.90.

It was voted unanimously to schedule the following meetings for 1942:

Business meeting—in Buffalo, in conjunction with the New York State Hospital Association

Scientific meetings—Strong Memorial Hospital, Rochester, N. Y.
—University Hospitals of Cleveland, Ohio

(dates to be announced in a later issue of the Bulletin).

At a meeting of the Board of Trustees it was voted that a notice be placed in the Bulletin offering the members of the New York Association an opportunity to specify particular subjects for presentation at the 1942 meetings—the Program Committee to be guided in accordance with the greatest number of requests and its ability to procure papers on the subjects desired. Members to submit their suggestions to Alice M. Racette, Secretary, New York State Association of Nurse Anesthetists, Ellis Hospital, Schenectady, N. Y.

Miss Racette was chosen as a delegate to the annual meeting of the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists in September. Suggested revisions to the By-Laws were carefully reviewed and adopted, and will be printed in the near future.

Dr. James T. Gwathmey of New York City was the guest of honor at a luncheon on Thursday, May 22. The "speechless" banquet was well attended, and diversified entertainment, including a floor show, added to the enjoyment of all. Messages of greeting were read from Hazel Blanchard and Mrs. Flora M. Burg.

Report of Secretary

Applications for membership	50
Notifications of acceptance for active membership	24
Notifications of rejection	1
Applications awaiting approval from American Association	10
Delinquent members—1941:	
Active	6
Associate	0

AUGUST 1941

Memberships discontinued:		
Illness		1
Marriage		1
Members suspended for non-payment of dues		3
Transfers from New York Association		24
Transfers to New York Association		16
Paid-up members May 23, 1941:		
Active	179	
Associate	7	
Total		186
Increase in membership over 1940	*	17
Pieces of incoming mail (with 569 enclosures)		421
Pieces of outgoing mail (with 2100 enclosures)		1043
ema Floated.		

Officers Elected:

Frances Hess	
Long Island College Hospital, Brooklyn	
Gertrude Steffen	
Long Island College Hospital, Brooklyn	
Alice M. Racette	
Ellis Hospital, Schenectady	
May A. Danaher	
1845 Becker St., Schenectady	
Anna Kline Rogge	
260 Lenox Road, Brooklyn	
Janet B. Dougan	
Pauline E. Lapinski	
Martha T. Ziegler	
	Long Island College Hospital, Brooklyn Gertrude Steffen Long Island College Hospital, Brooklyn Alice M. Racette Ellis Hospital, Schenectady May A. Danaher 1845 Becker St., Schenectady Anna Kline Rogge 260 Lenox Road, Brooklyn Janet B. Dougan Pauline E. Lapinski

Miss Alice Racette, Secretary of the New York Association, would appreciate hearing from anyone who knows the present address of Miss Joan H. Arthur, formerly of Brooklyn Hospital, Brooklyn.

OHIO

The eighth annual meeting of the Ohio Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held April 30, 1941, at the Deshler-Wallick Hotel, Columbus, in conjunction with the Ohio Hospital Association.

At the general sessions the following papers were read:

"Pharmacology of Anesthetic Agents"

Sister Mary John Geierman, Mercy Hospital, Toledo

"Physiology and Pharmacology of Anesthesia"

Alma Webb, Cincinnati General Hospital, Cincinnati

"Anesthesia from the Standpoint of a Hospital Administrator" Sister M. Theodora, Good Samaritan Hospital, Cincinnati

"Anesthesia Problems in a Small Hospital" Jeanette Taylor, Union Hospital, Dover

A round table was conducted by Dr. G. W. Brugler, Assistant Superintendent of the University Hospitals of Cleveland.

Officers Elected:

President Myra E. Momeyer

St. Luke's Hospital, Cleveland

First Vice-President Romaine M. Stewart People's Hospital, Akron

Second Vice-President Esther C. Pracejus

Lutheran Hospital, Cleveland

Secretary-Treasurer Helen U. Carney

Youngstown Hospital, N. S. Unit, Youngstown

VIRGINIA

The seventh annual meeting of the Virginia Association of Nurse Anesthetists was held in the Club Room of the John Marshall Hotel, Richmond, on April 26, 1941, with Miss Georgia Scott presiding. Twenty-one of the total membership of sixty-one were present, and five visiting anesthetists from North Carolina.

Miss Scott gave a talk in regard to the work of the Association and expressed her desire to see the North and South Carolina anesthetists organized and plans made for the entire group to meet with the Tri-State Medical Association. Miss Cordelia Bakes of Norfolk General Hospital, Norfolk, led a round table on the problems of anesthesia. A vote of thanks was extended to the outgoing officers for their splendid work.

Following the business meeting a tour was made through the new Medical College of Richmond, and the annual banquet was held at the John Marshall Hotel in the evening.

Officers Elected:

President

Georgia C. Scott

Lewis-Gale Hospital, Roanoke

Vice-President

Mrs. Minnie Freese Payne

University of Virginia Hospital,

Charlottesville

Secretary-Treasurer

Eunice V. Marberry

Jefferson Hospital, Roanoke

Historian

Vera G. Copeland

St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Rich-

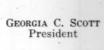
mond

Trustees:

3-year Rosa B. Scarce

1-year Cora Massie

1-year Marguerite B. Shiley





OREGON

The Oregon Association of Nurse Anesthetists opened its fifth annual meeting on May 14, 1941, in the Auditorium of the Medical Dental Building, Portland, with a salute to the flag led by the Tom Johnson Troop 203, Boy Scouts of America.

Following an address by the President, Anne Feser of Portland, the following papers were read:

"Anesthesia"

Richard B. Adams, M.D., Portland

"Anesthesia in a Rural Community" (moving pictures)

Comments by Alice Atkinson, Charlton Hospital, Tillamook

"Cyclopropane"

Aimee L. Doerr, Portland

A report of the meeting held in San Francisco in March by the Association of Western Hospitals, was given by Sister Agnes de Boheme, St. Vincent's Hospital, Portland, and a report of the meeting held in Tacoma, Washington, was presented by Mrs. Josephine Bunch, Portland. Fannie Ogelsby, Salem Hospital, Salem, was chosen delegate to the annual meeting in Atlantic City.

At 5:30 P. M. a reception was held at the residence of Mrs. Bunch. The banquet was held at the Congress Hotel, with a stimulating talk by Dr. Beatrice Young, followed by entertainment in a lighter vein.

The Oregon anesthetists will meet on October 13 at St. Vincent's Hospital, Portland.

Officers Elected:

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Josephine A. Bunch

4030 S.W. Condor, Portland

First Vice-President

Alice Atkinson

Charlton Hospital, Tillamook

Second Vice-President

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1925 S. E. 56th Avenue, Portland

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5714 S. E. Belmont, Portland

Historian

Sister Agnes de Boheme

St. Vincent's Hospital, Portland

Trustees:

4-year Anne Feser

3-year Hazel Butler

2-year Elizabeth D. Johnson

1-year Aimee L. Doerr



JOSEPHINE A. BUNCH President

OKLAHOMA

The Oklahoma Association of Nurse Anesthetists met June 4, 1941, at 8:00 P.M., in the Nurses' Residence of Valley View Hospital, Ada, Oklahoma.

A report of the Mid-West meeting was given by Mrs. Evelyn Johnson of McAlester Clinic, McAlester, Okla. A brief history of the founding of the Valley View Hospital and its association with the Commonwealth Foundation of New York was presented by Estelle Graham.

It was decided to hold four regular state meetings each year in various localities to enable a greater number of members to attend. The drive to increase the membership is being continued. All members are urged to attend the annual meeting and election of officers of the Oklahoma Association, which will be held in McAlester on September 7.

Light refreshments were served following the meeting.

WASHINGTON

At the second annual meeting of the Washington State Association of Nurse Anesthetists held in Tacoma, April 25-26, 1941 (program published in the May issue of the Bulletin), forty-five members and guests were registered.

Officers Elected:

President

Mrs. Mildred Peterson 705 Broadway, Seattle

Vice-President

Mary E. Leonard
Paulsen Medical & Dental Hospital, Spokane

Secretary

Rose O'Neill 1330 Boren Avenue, Seattle

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MRS. MILDRED PETERSON President

Present Status of Nurse Anesthetists in the United States Army and Navy

Letters of inquiry from our members have come to headquarters frequently of late, requesting information concerning the status of the nurse anesthetist in the present Defense Program. These letters indicate willingness and desire on the part of the individual to volunteer her services. It is, therefore, considered desirable to publish information pertinent to the subject.

At the convention held in Boston last September, Miss Miriam Shupp of Strong Memorial Hospital, Rochester, N. Y., was appointed Chairman of a committee to investigate such matters. Her correspondence with the Army and Navy officials has developed the following details:

U. S. Army, Major Julia O. Flikke, Superintendent Army Nursing Corps: "Nurse Anesthetists are appointed to the Army Nurse Corps in the grade of nurse, with the relative rank of 2nd Lieutenant. They are subject to all the regulations governing regular army nurses. Since there is a need for anesthetists in the Nurse Corps at present, they are usually assigned to that duty. However, in some of the smaller Army hospitals, where more than one Nurse Anesthetist is on duty, they may be assigned to duties other than those of anesthetist."

The rate of pay is \$70.00 per month, with maintenance.

U. S. Navy, Rear Admiral Ross T. McIntire, Surgeon General, U.S.N.: "Under existing Navy Regulations there is no provision whereby nurses may be appointed in the Nurse Corps of the Navy or Naval Reserve for duty limited to the administration of anesthetics. All appointments of nurses are for general nursing duties. However, if a member of the Navy Nurse Corps is qualified in the administration of anesthetics, she may be assigned to that duty by the Commanding Officer of the Naval Hospital or Station to which she is attached.

"Modification of the present arrangements is not contemplated. It is considered to be to the best interests of the Medical Department not to designate nurses for the administration of anesthetics only, but to appoint applicants who hold this qualification as nurses for general nursing duties."

Whether the nurse anesthetist joins the Army or Navy service directly or through the Red Cross, she has the status and rank of nurse. While in view of the present need for anesthetists she would probably be assigned to duties in anesthesia, she must understand that since there is no separate division in either the Army or Navy for enlistment as merely anesthetist, she must be prepared to accept any assignment in general nursing, in which the service sees fit to place her. To the best of our knowledge, most of those of our members who have already entered the military service in this present emergency, are doing regular ward duty.

With the critical need before us for supplying more well trained nurse anesthetists to service the acute shortage which exists in civilian hospitals throughout the United States, the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists is reluctant to urge the individuals of this highly trained group to forsake their specialized and badly needed service in these civilian hospitals, for possibly general nursing service in the military forces, under the regulations as they now exist.

Many of the University centers have organized "hospital units," that are subject to call in emergency. If an anesthetist does not desire to enroll for active service at this time, she can volunteer to the head of such hospital unit, for service with it as anesthetist in the event that that unit is called into service.

If an anesthetist desires to volunteer for service in the U. S. Army Nurse Corps she should apply to Major Julia O. Flikke, Superintendent Army Nurse Corps, Office of the Surgeon General, War Department, Washington, D.C. If she desires to enlist in the U. S. Navy Nurse Corps, she should apply to the Office of the Surgeon General, Bureau of Medicine and Surgery, Navy Department, Washington, D.C.

The American Association of Nurse Anesthetists through various corrects, is keeping in close touch with developments of the National Defense program. It is likewise in comprehensive touch with the acute needs of our civilian hospitals. By reason of the national scope of its acquaintance with both civil and military requirements, the American Association of Nurse Anesthetists desires the privilege of advising with its member State or Sectional Associations when they contemplate group recommendations relating to transfer from active civilian hospital service, to Red Cross, Army or Navy service under the regulations at present in effect in those fields.

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July 15, 1941

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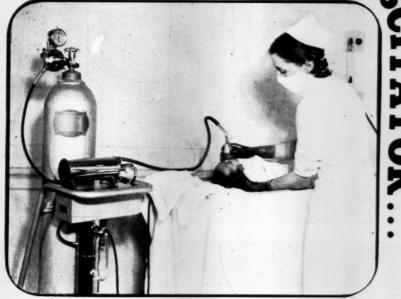
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